

The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, JUNE 15, 1882.

The Week.

THE Tariff Commission has been made up of five representatives of special interests (the woollen-manufacturers, the iron-masters, the wool-growers, the rice-growers, and the sugar-planters), two persons classed as "strong protectionists," one person classed as a "moderate protectionist," and one (Mr. John S. Phelps, of Missouri) whose tariff predilections are not known, but who is supposed to have been placed on the Commission because he was a Democrat, and who is at all events superannuated and has, since his appointment, resigned. The *Tribune's* Washington correspondent says very frankly that "the work of the Commission is not to decide whether or not there shall be a protective tariff, but to make a protective tariff." This statement of the intent of the Commission is undoubtedly true, as far as it goes, but it is incomplete. We have a protective tariff now. The purpose of the Commission, therefore, must be to make another and different protective tariff. This can be done only by making a redistribution of the duties so as to take away from some interests a portion of the favors given to them, and to bestow the same upon others. They can hardly expect to increase the aggregate burden of the tariff: the country is in no mood for that; but they may divide the spoils differently. We cannot say that we are disappointed by the make-up of the Commission. Having looked upon the movement from the beginning as an effort to stave off needed amendments of the tariff, the separate and successive steps taken to carry out this intention are not, in our view, matters of any great moment.

The Senate on Monday and Tuesday made an attempt to grapple with the Japanese indemnity question, and, in the effort to be "just honest enough," made a sad exhibition of itself. The money originally received from Japan, \$785,000, belongs either to the United States or to Japan, and of course the interest belongs to the owner of the principal. The Senate voted, however, that the principal only ought to be returned. The only reason advanced for treating the matter in this way was the statement of Messrs. Plumb and Ingalls that a "lobby" has been at work for years in the interest of the Japanese Government. This lobby has been got up, it seems, by the Japanese Minister, who has "descended from the diplomatic office he occupies," and is hard at work "influencing legislation." They evidently think that he is spending a good deal of money, for he is described as not only lobbying the Senate and getting up elaborate legal briefs, but as furnishing the entire press of the country with editorials. On the whole, they make him out the most accomplished corruptionist that has ever appeared at Washington. He has got the newspapers of both parties not merely to favor his scheme for taking money out of the Treasury, but to insist that it would be

a breach of national faith not to do it. The strangest part of the matter is that a considerable number of votes should be influenced by such stuff as this.

Mr. Wilson, in the course of his opening for the defence in the Star-route trials, resorted to an argument in defence of his clients of a somewhat novel character. He urged that in the far West the returns from the overland mail service had always been small in proportion to the outlay. This service was first established at the time of the California gold fever in 1849, "over the alkali deserts," over "sage-brush plains, where no living thing larger than a jack-rabbit could be met with in hundreds of miles," over "enormous mountains," too; and its maintenance cost \$600,000, while the returns from postage were only \$27,000. Not satisfied with this, the Government pushed out another route through the Southwest, passing through "many miles of morass," over "scorching prairies," where the thermometer went "far above a hundred," down through "the desolate Staked Plains of Texas"; and this route cost \$600,000 a year, and only brought in \$2,000. "Now," said Mr. Wilson, "has any complaint ever been made against the operation of these routes because of their cost? Not a voice was ever raised against them." The difference between the two cases, however, is that in the Star-routes the cost was not occasioned by the alkali deserts, the sage-brush plains, the enormous mountains, the miles of morass, or the scorching prairies, but by the Second Assistant Postmaster-General and his friends taking the money and putting it into their own pockets. This constitutes an important distinction between the two cases, as the jury will no doubt, on reflection, perceive.

The Republican State Convention in Ohio, which met, deliberated, and adjourned on Wednesday, had the difficult task to perform of harnessing two horses together that wanted to go in two opposite directions. The principal point was how to keep the temperance vote and the German vote at the same time. The platform presents a model of plausibility intended not to offend anybody, and for that very reason calculated not to satisfy anybody. It provides that, "by specific taxation, the traffic in intoxicating liquors should be made to bear its share of the public burdens," and that the Constitution, which, according to the recent decision of the Supreme Court on the Pond law, stands in the way, should be amended accordingly. This has a fair sound to the uninitiated, but it is very questionable whether it will satisfy the opponents of strict sumptuary laws in Ohio, who have learned to suspect the contents of the wooden horse of Troy, while on the other hand it will be scarcely satisfactory to the strict sort of temperance people. Thus this platform may fail in winning back the disaffected German vote, and succeed in driving away the advocates of prohibition. The whole muddle is the upshot of one of those ill-advised attempts to save peo-

ple from perdition by extreme legislation—attempts which, as experience teaches, will always fail the more surely the more extreme that legislation is, while moderate measures might be quite effective.

It has been determined upon by Mr. Cameron, according to recent advices, that his State Convention, recalled to nominate a candidate for "Congressman-at-large," is to select Mr. Wanamaker, the great clothing merchant of Philadelphia. There is said to be a good deal of reluctance on the part of "the boys" to nominate that gentleman, but as Mr. Cameron has selected him, they will, of course, have to obey orders. The reasons why Mr. Cameron made that selection are very curious. Mr. Wanamaker is not known as much of a statesman; he has not even taken any part in politics. But, in Mr. Cameron's opinion, he is the man for the hour (1) because he is a prominent Presbyterian and great Sunday-school patron, and may therefore be expected to draw a large religious vote, and (2) because he is, as a clothing merchant, a very large advertiser in the newspapers, and it is thought no paper in Philadelphia will dare to oppose him for fear of losing his patronage. With his peculiar views of human nature, Mr. Cameron evidently thinks that he is putting the fidelity of the Independents to their cause to a very severe test by a nomination of such many-sided strength.

The announcement that the collection of "assessments" is this year to be carried into the Navy-yards, and that even the laborers are to be levied on, shows that the spoilsmen are steadily growing more audacious in their ventures. The Navy-yards have long been—in fact, have always been—great sources of corruption; but hitherto, we believe, as far as the laborers were concerned, a vote has been considered a fair equivalent for employment. They have not hitherto been compelled to pay cash for their places besides voting. Any collection of assessments is the sale of Government offices for money, but the manual laborers have not until now been expected to purchase theirs. This sort of traffic has been common enough in past ages in every country. In France, under the old régime, a large number of Government places were vendible, and in England commissions in the Army remained negotiable commodities down to our own day. But we believe no Government but our own, and no party but the Republican party, has until now forced the laborer and mechanic to pay out of his scanty earnings for the privilege of doing public work. Even the Turkish Pashas have not reached this point, so far as we know, though some of them are ready for anything with a profit in it. Of course, assessed laborers cannot be good workmen. They would be more than human if they rendered faithful service in employment which they have purchased. The connection of the assessment system in general with the cost and inefficiency of Navy-yard work must be close, and will hereafter be closer, though we may not be able to say exactly how much of

the waste, and extravagance, and failure of our navy-building and navy-maintaining is due to it.

The bill making retirement at the age of sixty-four compulsory in the Army passed the Senate on Tuesday. All efforts to except Generals Sherman and Sheridan from its operation were unsuccessful, owing to the fear felt by many that if exceptions were once begun they would be greatly multiplied. It cannot be said that there is any great hardship in the rule. No man of sixty-four can be greatly wronged by being relieved from active work, with a pension, six years before the period which is for all practical purposes the term of human life. There is hardly any man who by the age of sixty-four has not begun to feel the weight of years, and the cases are rare indeed in which an officer who has begun to feel the weight of years is fit for active service in the field, and as a rule every officer in the Army ought to be fit for active service in the field. As a rule, too, the elderly soldiers have got the worst of it, other things being equal, in campaigns against young opponents. The success of the Germans under old generals in the wars of 1866 and 1870 is an exception, but it must be remembered that the real work of these two campaigns was done by General Moltke years before. The greatest achievement of his career was the organization and perfection of the Prussian General Staff, probably the most complete and effective weapon of war ever devised. The campaigns against Austria and France were by it planned long before the war broke out, and the Army put into a state of perfect readiness. The blows which followed, too, were delivered in close accordance with the programme, and they fell with such force and regularity that they had almost the air of being struck by the hammer of Fate. The result was that the enemy was destroyed with literally unprecedented speed. The Austrian capital was at the mercy of the Prussians, and peace concluded, in six weeks. The French Emperor and his Army had been bagged and his capital reduced to extremities in nine months. So that there was in neither contest the prolonged wear and tear of the sudden and unforeseen, which are most trying to elderly nerves. That Moltke and Steinmetz and Vogel von Falkenstein could have stood the vicissitudes of a protracted struggle like our Civil War, is not likely.

Our military policy is a very simple one. We do not need a large army, but we do need a considerable body of trained officers, ready to take the command of a large army whenever we see fit to raise one, knowing well that the emergency which calls for one is, if it ever occur, pretty sure to be sudden. It should, therefore, be our object to encourage officers to enter the service and remain long enough to learn its business thoroughly, and then to leave it, so as to have a steady stream passing through the process of training. Whatever in our system of promotion or retirement affords this encouragement is desirable; whatever diminishes it, pernicious. And it must not be forgotten that in creating a military organization it is the probable effect on the imaginations

of the young we have mainly to bear in mind. The period of retirement, for instance, should be fixed so as not to make the young men think promotion likely to be slow, and not to make middle-aged men think themselves likely to be hardly dealt with. It is these two classes whose views should settle the matter. As a general rule a man of sixty-five, who prances about, and fancies he can sit a horse as well as ever, and is as good in a campaign as any one, is a foolish old fellow whose powers of mind as well as of body are failing. Some of the most shocking disasters in the history of war have been caused by this class of officers. The memorable panic of the British cavalry at Chillianwallah was largely caused by the presence in command of an aged brigadier who had to be lifted into his saddle, and the earlier and still more frightful disaster of Cabul, in 1841, was directly due to the age and infirmity of Elphinstone, the general in command.

The gold-export movement during the week was not important, and late in the week the foreign demand for American railroad securities was renewed, having undoubtedly been stimulated by the favorable condition and prospects of the crops, and by the fact that Mr. Vanderbilt spoke to his friends more encouragingly about his railroads than he has done of late, and because of the belief that he has been buying back the shares in them which he sold. The New York banks, mainly in consequence of the excessive disbursements of the Treasury for the redemption of called bonds, gained in reserve, and now hold upward of \$5,000,000 more lawful money than the reserve law requires. In the foreign trade of the country the imports are decreasing, but there is no increase in merchandise exports. Domestic trade continues very dull. There has been no extension of the labor troubles; on the contrary, in some places the strikers have returned to work. At the Stock Exchange prices declined early in the week, but later advanced to the highest figures. Railroad earnings show surprising gains; the tonnage is larger than a year ago, and the rates are higher than since the outbreak of the late railroad war.

The circulation on Friday on the Stock Exchange of rumors affecting the solvency of some half dozen prominent houses—rumors which could not be traced to any responsible source, and which were falsified by the fact that the houses in question continued to transact business as usual—was evidently a part of a "bear campaign," and is by no means unprecedented in the history of Wall Street. If a party is "short" of a particular stock, and has exhausted all other means of depressing its price, the last resort is to spread a story that some firm known to be "long" of the same stock is about to fail, and to have this story telegraphed privately to all parts of the country. To those who believe the story (and many will believe it if somebody else has actually failed within a day or two), the inference will be that a large amount of this stock will come on the market suddenly, with the effect of depressing the price.

Bona-fide holders will thus be alarmed and impelled to sell before the expected break comes, and their selling will produce the break desired and intended by the malignants who invented the slander. This is an old story. The practice of crying down the credit and standing of respectable and solvent firms has been in vogue so long, and has yielded such handsome returns to fresh relays of rascals, that we must not indulge in the hope of seeing a stop put to it at an early day. But the Stock Exchange ought to expel from its membership any person who can be shown, upon good evidence, to have set on foot false rumors respecting the credit and solvency of a fellow-member; this as an additional penalty to that imposed by the law of the State for the same offence.

The English friends of marriage with a deceased wife's sister have just been defeated, by a very small majority of four, however, in a vote of 360, in an attempt to carry their bill through the House of Lords. As the royal family seems to have come over to them, the Prince of Wales and the Dukes of Edinburgh and Albany voting in the minority, their triumph cannot be far distant. There never has been a more curious or characteristic agitation in England than that on this question. The number of men who wish to marry their deceased wives' sisters never seems to have been great: in fact, they were only a handful all told; but their attempts to get their wishes legalized have been met by an opposition of almost passionate bitterness. The contradictions produced in the utilitarian argument against them have been very remarkable. It has been maintained, often by the same writer, that the cases were so few that it would be absurd to change the law on account of them; and also, that they were so numerous and desperate that if legislation were provided for their benefit it would lead to an awful amount of crime, including wife-murder and incest. The *Saturday Review* has for many years had an annual article on men who wish to marry their deceased wives' sisters, in which they are painted in the blackest colors, as an extraordinary mixture of imbecility and lawlessness, and as capable of overthrowing both throne and altar, if necessary, to gratify their desires. The supporters of the change are, however, after all more powerful and persistent than the opponents of it, because their interest in the question is keener. They have, in short, the advantage over the latter which the high-tariff men have over the freetraders. A man who wishes to marry his wife's sister is, as an agitator on this subject, worth two dozen men who think he ought not to marry her.

Mr. Henry George has made a convert of Michael Davitt, the Irish suspect, to his plan of having the state own all the land of the country and let it out to the occupiers, and he proposes to have it adopted in Ireland under the auspices of an Irish Parliament, the landlords to be bought out for about \$750,000,000. The worst effect of this will be its unsettling effect on the Irish tenants, who are now in a transition state and need all pos-

sible assistance in settling down. That the scheme will receive much real acceptance from the farmers is very unlikely, because they see peasant proprietorship already within their reach; and that any body of Celtic peasant proprietors will ever consent to surrender their land to the state or anybody else, is something which the experience of France justifies us in disbelieving. If the Irish tenants ever get the fee simple of their farms, the danger is that even the purchase money advanced by the state will not be repaid, although a fixed amount. That a scheme for saddling them with a variable state rent would be accepted is most unlikely. But that the Davitt plan might furnish something to clamor for, as a stepping-stone to proprietorship free of all charges whatever, is not very unlikely, and if he perseveres with it, he may greatly embarrass Parnell. The more such theories are produced by the Irish leaders, however, the more remote the period at which capital will seek the country for any species of investment.

As Mr. Gladstone rather pooh-poohed the disinclination of the Irish judges to serve without juries under the Repression Bill, and, in fact, intimated that he had not heard of it, they have held another meeting, at which they have drawn up a protest, which, to make assurance sure, they have sent to Mr. Gladstone's house, reiterating their objections. One of them, Baron Fitzgerald, will, it is said, resign, in case this feature of the bill is not modified. The truth is, that as the bill is an English measure, and as no Irishman of note, whether lay or professional, has been consulted about it—not even the judges on whom it is proposed to lay this most serious and unprecedented burden—it ought to provide a special tribunal made up of Englishmen or Irishmen who approve of it. Inasmuch as it constitutes a startling departure from the existing usages of English jurisprudence, it is essentially a law which nobody who disbelieves in it ought to be called on to execute, and, least of all, the judges, because the only thing they have to rely on for the preservation of their moral authority is the popular belief in their political impartiality. If their resistance should lead to greater consideration for Irish opinion in the concoction of Irish legislation, it will do great good. One of the singular but very instructive incidents of Mr. Forster's official career as Chief Secretary was that, although he was exercising enormous powers and had but little knowledge of the country, he never consulted an Irish member, not even one of the moderate Liberals.

The *Tribune* cites, as an illustration of the prophetic powers of its London correspondent, his prediction that Mr. Dillon's late "heart-breaking speech," as Mr. Gladstone called it in the House of Commons, would find its "echo in the report of an Irish rifle behind a hedge." Accordingly, says the editor, "the same issue of the *Tribune* which contained the prediction chronicled its fulfilment" in the murder of Mr. Bourke. Unfortunately, it is not so easy as this would make it appear, to become a first-class Irish prophet. The practice of mur-

dering landlords as a remedy for agrarian wrongs began in Ireland between 1750 and 1760. It was the first sign of life the conquered population gave after the triumph of William of Orange and the enactment of the Penal Laws. It has continued steadily ever since, and has been promoted by various organizations, beginning with the "White Boys," and coming down to the "Moonshiners." During all that period there has been no year in which some agrarian murders were not committed; there were some years in which more were committed than in any one of the last three. In order to repress them fifty coercion acts of various degrees of severity have been passed. In all debates on Irish matters in the House of Commons since 1800, these outrages have been used to taunt and silence all, whether English or Irish, members who urged the redress of Irish grievances. In many cases they have been used, as in Dillon's case, to make orators who denounced force as "no remedy" responsible for the murders which followed the delivery of their speeches. In fact, one of the favorite modes of evading the radical treatment of the Irish problem has been to accuse them of instigating by their language an excitable and lawless population to deeds of violence. That the *Tribune* correspondent should know nothing of the history of the Irish question is not surprising, because it is not an inviting branch of literature; but the rule that "you mustn't prophesy unless you know" is peculiarly applicable to his case.

The notion which the Tory papers in England are industriously preaching, too, that the Land League teachings have caused the violence of the past three years, is equally absurd. The violence began in its present form 130 years ago. The causes of it were described by Dean Swift in his fiercest rhetoric. They were described forty years later by Arthur Young, and since the beginning of the century have been described by hundreds of travellers, publicists, and economists, English and foreign, and by three English Commissions. These all tell the same story. Roughly speaking, peasants shoot landlords to keep down rents. In some cases, as in Tipperary, for instance, which was forty years ago literally a "dark and bloody ground," they shot so successfully that the rents have been moderate and the county very peaceable ever since. To state these things in this way has, of course, the air, from one point of view, of palliating or instigating crime. And yet stated they must be, before the remedy can be applied. But the question on whom the greater bloodguiltiness rests—those who have for a century permitted this fountain of woe to flow, or those who have from time to time passionately and indiscreetly called attention to it—is one which few moralists will have much difficulty in answering.

The retirement of General Ignatieff as Minister of the Interior might be taken as a symptom of reformatory intentions on the part of the Russian Czar. In diplomacy Ignatieff was currently called "the father of lies." In politics he was one of the chief pillars of old Russian absolutism, and in adminis-

tration he was looked upon as the very embodiment of arbitrary and corrupt methods. His withdrawal from an important post in the Ministry would, therefore, under any circumstances, be a *sine qua non* of a liberal and enlightened policy. But the appointment of Count Tolstol as his successor is not calculated to encourage great hopes in that respect. He was Minister of Public Instruction once, and as such he showed himself more of the kind of Ignatieff than of General Melikoff, the reform Minister, who, when in power, deemed it necessary to use his whole influence to bring about the removal of Tolstol from the place he then held.

The Turkish Commissioner has arrived in Egypt, the Sultan's efforts to have the conference given up before he went having failed. The Powers refuse to give up the conference, and the Commissioner is to do the best he can in the meantime. He is said to have instructions to restore the authority of the Khedive, and has received Arabi Bey coldly, but the populace in Cairo have evidently been led to believe that his mission is to oust foreigners from control in Egypt, and revive the Mussulman supremacy. The Commissioner probably has instructions to do everything to satisfy the Powers, but it will be done in such a way as to make the people regard it as an assertion of the Sultan's authority for which the Powers are grateful.

The situation in Egypt has been so long "strained," as the diplomatists say, that the wonder is that the outbreak at Alexandria, reported on Monday, did not come sooner. The population of course know nothing about the negotiations between the Powers, and the reasons of state which make France and England reluctant to take active steps to restore order. They only know what they see, and what they see is that Arabi Bey and his men are masters of Egypt and do not care a straw what the infidels think or say, and that the Khedive has no authority. If France and England had made up their mind to leave Egypt to the Egyptians, the prolongation of this state of things would make but little difference. But nothing can be further from their thoughts. They are determined, each for different reasons, that the Egyptians shall not have Egypt, and it was, therefore, incumbent on them to let the Egyptians know in some unmistakable way at the outset that Arabi Bey's performances were simple tomfoolery, and that if he did not soon desist, he would be summarily dealt with. He has been allowed to go on, however, so long that the populace in Alexandria and Cairo have begun to feel that the foreigners are there on sufferance; and this being the case, a row in a café was all that was necessary to bring on an *émeute* such as has occurred. The worst of it is that order and security will be now much harder to restore than before. Moreover, the attack on the Italian Consul brings Italy into the field, with a claim to meddle which she did not before possess. The Italians will now hardly be content if their Ministry does not make a show of Italian troops to the Egyptians, and there is nothing which France would like less.

SUMMARY OF THE WEEK'S NEWS.

(WEDNESDAY, JUNE 7, to TUESDAY, JUNE 13, 1882, inclusive.)

DOMESTIC.

ON Wednesday afternoon the President sent to the Senate his nominations for the Commission authorized by Congress to inquire into the tariff and suggest legislation. The names are as follows: William A. Wheeler, of New York, chairman; John L. Hayes, of Massachusetts; Henry W. Oliver, jr., of Pennsylvania; Austin M. Garland, of Illinois; Jacob Ambler, of Ohio; John S. Phelps, of Missouri; Robert P. Porter, of the District of Columbia; John W. H. Underwood, of Georgia; and Duncan F. Kenner, of Louisiana. The Commission is largely made up of representatives of the leading interests which profit by a high protective tariff. Mr. Phelps and Mr. Wheeler have declined to serve.

The Japanese Indemnity Bill was passed by the Senate on Tuesday by a vote of 35 to 13. The bill, as it came from the House, provided for the repayment to Japan of \$785,000 unjustly taken from her, with interest, but the Senate struck out the interest, and voted to return only the principal.

On Monday the House of Representatives agreed to the Senate amendment to the Army Bill, fixing the age for compulsory retirement of Army officers at sixty-four.

The House Committee on Civil-Service Reform has directed a favorable report to be made to the House of Representatives on Mr. Kasson's bill, which charges the Court of Claims with the preliminary consideration of cases of contested elections.

The Foreign Affairs Committee has reported to the House a joint resolution authorizing the President to call an international conference to fix a common prime meridian for the regulation of time throughout the world.

The Ohio Republican State Convention met on Wednesday and nominated Charles Townsend for Secretary of State; John H. Doyle for Judge of the Supreme Court; and Charles Flickinger for Member of the Board of Public Works. The platform adopted laments the death of President Garfield; approves President Arthur's course; condemns the outrages upon the Jews in Russia, and calls for a continuance of the efforts of the Government to ameliorate their condition; endorses and affirms the principle of protection to American industry; demands that, "by specific taxation, the traffic in intoxicating liquors shall be made to bear its share of the public burden," and that the Constitution of the State shall be changed so as to give the people practical control of the liquor traffic, "to the end that the evils resulting therefrom may be effectually provided against." This last clause is the most important in the platform, for upon the way in which the liquor question was treated depended the German vote in the State. The action of the Convention in coming out decidedly in favor of specific taxation of the liquor traffic will, it is conceded, lose a large portion of the Germans to the Republicans.

The Independent-Liberal State Convention of North Carolina met on Wednesday. Sixty of the ninety-five counties are said to have been represented by men who have heretofore acted and voted with the Democratic party. The platform invites "all persons, without regard to past political affiliations," to join the party; denounces the present system of county government in the State; demands a free ballot and a fair count; denounces all sumptuary laws or class legislation in general, and the Prohibition Act in particular, and calls for its repeal; calls for a liberal system of public instruction, both by the State and National Governments, and to that end urges the "application of all the funds arising from the tax on distilled spirits by the general Government to the common schools of the State."

Two Democratic election officers of Halifax County, North Carolina, were convicted of fraud at Raleigh, on Thursday. They will both be sent to the Penitentiary. This is looked upon as a great victory for a "free vote and a fair count" in that State, and it is thought that the precedent will do much toward securing a fair vote and an honest count in the November elections.

The Alabama Democratic State Convention met on Thursday at Montgomery and nominated E. A. O'Neal for Governor by acclamation. He is a native of the State, a lawyer by profession, and was a Brigadier-General in the Confederate Army. The platform demands a strict construction of the Federal Constitution; denounces centralization; invites immigration and capital to the State, and pledges them "full and perfect protection"; says that "public education should be fostered and encouraged by the State as far as the means of the State will allow"; calls for the protection and preservation of the purity of the ballot-box, and condemns any attempt to interfere with the free and full exercise of the elective franchise.

The Iowa Greenback State Convention met on Thursday and elected General Weaver chairman. The Committee on Resolutions reported in opposition to the national banks and in favor of the general Government issuing legal-tender notes; in opposition to refunding the interest-bearing debt of the country; in favor of the unlimited coinage of gold and silver; in opposition to railway and telegraph monopolies; and in favor of a revision of the tariff in the interests of American labor.

The Maine Republican State Convention was held at Portland on Tuesday. Frederick Robie was nominated for Governor. Senator Hale presided at the Convention, and Senator Frye made an address which created great enthusiasm. The platform calls for an honest count of votes, maintenance of free schools, protective tariff, hard money, and opposes the reduction of the internal-revenue tax on liquors.

The Utah Constitutional Convention assembled on Wednesday and adopted a memorial to Congress, urging the admission of the State, and appointed a committee of seven to go to Washington immediately and personally urge the admission of Utah into the sisterhood of States.

The election in Oregon resulted in a victory for the Republicans. George, the Republican candidate for Congress, was elected by a majority of over 3,500, which is the largest majority ever given to any candidate. The Republicans control the Legislature by a certain majority of ten.

The Legislature of Rhode Island reflected Senator Henry B. Anthony on Tuesday.

News has been received from Patrick and Franklin Counties, Virginia, that the people of those counties have been threatened with a famine, owing to the failure of the corn crop. The counties are remote from railway communication, in a mountainous country, and it is difficult to ship provisions to them. There were said, on Tuesday, to be hundreds, if not thousands, especially in Patrick County, who were without food, and had no idea where their next meal was to come from. Many persons, both white and colored, had not tasted food, except such vegetables as they could gather in the fields, for two days.

Major E. A. Burke, State Treasurer of Louisiana, and Mr. C. H. Parker, editor of the New Orleans *Picayune*, fought a duel in New Orleans on Wednesday, in which Mr. Burke was severely wounded in the thigh. The cause of the duel was an article which appeared in the *Picayune* reflecting on Mr. Burke.

A committee of workmen from the Cincinnati iron mills met the proprietors of the mills on Saturday, and made an agreement to go to work on Monday on the terms of the contract of last October, the contract, however, to be

amended by striking out the word "forever." The prices at present will be the same as those when they stopped work, and will remain so until the scale is fixed at Pittsburgh, when that will be the Cincinnati scale. All the iron mills in the Cincinnati region began work on Monday. The situation in Pittsburgh remains unchanged. The members of the Amalgamated Association are preparing for a great labor demonstration on the 17th of June. There will be a procession which will be one of the largest that ever marched in Pittsburgh. Delegations from various States will participate, and it is expected that there will be from 20,000 to 25,000 men in line.

While 150 Poles and Bohemians were returning from work in the mills at Cleveland, Ohio, under protection of a guard of policemen, they were attacked by a mob of strikers who were finally driven off by the police, but not until they had inflicted serious injuries upon some of the Bohemians.

Commissioner McFarland says that a larger amount of public lands will have been disposed of during the year ending June 30, 1882, than during any preceding year since the establishment of the General Land Office.

The opening arguments of counsel in the Star-route cases ended on Thursday, and the prosecution began to put in its testimony.

Mr. Reed has applied to Associate Justice Bradley, of the Supreme Court, for a writ of habeas corpus in the Guiteau case, upon the ground that the Criminal Court of the District of Columbia had no jurisdiction. Justice Bradley has the papers under consideration, and his decision is looked for in a day or two. This is Guiteau's last chance.

A reunion of officers of the Union and Confederate Armies upon the battle-field of Gettysburg for the purpose of locating the positions of the various commands began on Wednesday.

The American Medical Association, which has been in session at St. Paul, Minnesota, refused on Wednesday to admit the delegates from the New York State Medical Society, on the ground that there were in the code of ethics of the New York Society "provisions essentially differing from and in conflict with" the code of ethics of the American Association.

Chief-Justice Bradford L. Prince, of New Mexico, and Judge Porter, of Arizona, have tendered their resignations to the President.

The Spanish-American Claims Commission has adjourned until July 8. All business before the Commission will remain at a standstill until the Governments of Spain and the United States come to a final understanding on the general question of citizenship and the right of the Spanish Government to go behind the naturalization certificates in a number of cases pending before the Commission.

The Italian residents of Cincinnati, Richmond, Chicago, Washington, San Francisco, and other cities held meetings on Sunday in memory of Garibaldi.

The Ladies' Land League, of Cleveland, held a large meeting on Sunday, notwithstanding Bishop Gilmour's threat that he would excommunicate those ladies who would not renounce all relations with the League. President Rowland delivered an address in which he congratulated the members on their gallant stand, and said: "To-day we have the sympathy of the whole world, and expressions of admiration and esteem, telling us to persevere in the good work, come pouring in from the press and from every Land League in the Union."

Lieutenant Danenhower has received information by mail from Irkutsk to the effect that letters from Engineer Melville, giving particulars of the finding of the bodies of Lieutenant De Long and his men, have reached there from the Lena Delta. In a memorandum found on De Long's body, and bearing the date October 18, it was stated that four of the party were dead, and that Mr. Collins was dying.

FOREIGN.

Dervish Pasha and the rest of the Turkish Commission arrived in Alexandria on Wednesday, the 7th. They were enthusiastically received by the native troops. Arabi Bey has been continuing the work of recruiting and quickening the mobilization of the reserves. On Thursday, Dervish Pasha arrived at Cairo and held a reception, at which Arabi Bey and other leaders of the military party are said to have been coldly received. He declared he was resolved to restore order, and that, if necessary to that end, he would himself assume the Ministry of War. On Saturday he received the Ulemas and addressed them in firm language. Four of the Ulemas rose from their seats and declared that if Europe had not annexed Egypt it was due to Arabi Bey and the military party, adding that before the pending questions were settled the English and French fleets must leave Alexandria. Dervish Pasha, on hearing this, "bounced to his feet," and exclaimed that he came as the representative of the Sultan, and not to listen to their advice, and ordered them to quit the room. It is believed in diplomatic circles in Egypt that Dervish Pasha, while offering general amnesty, will go even further than the Franco-British ultimatum against the leaders of the movement. On Saturday the Austrian, German, Italian, and Russian Ambassadors made collectively a communication to the Porte supporting the proposed conference on Egyptian affairs. The Porte in replying to this communication reiterated its arguments against the conference.

The troubles in Egypt came to a crisis on Sunday. Serious riots broke out in Alexandria between the natives and the Europeans, in the course of which sixty-seven Europeans were killed, and the English and Greek Consuls and the Italian Vice-Consul were severely wounded. The immediate cause of the disturbance, which continued about five hours, was said to have been the stabbing of an Arab by a Maltese. A mob of natives then collected and sacked the shops of Europeans, and killed and wounded the Europeans whom they met in the streets. Egyptian soldiers were called out, but they looked on for some time without interfering in the work of demolition and bloodshed. The Rue des Seurs, inhabited chiefly by Europeans, was completely wrecked. The Europeans fired from the windows, killing many Arabs. The British Consul was dragged from his carriage and severely beaten. The fighting, except the deliberate attacks upon the Consuls, seems to have been chiefly confined to the Arabs and Levantines. On Monday, a meeting of the foreign Consuls was held with the Khedive, Dervish Pasha, and Arabi Bey, and a solemn agreement was entered into that the Khedive should undertake to maintain order, and that Arabi Bey should strictly obey the Khedive's commands. A proclamation was to be issued informing the populace of this agreement. The correspondent of the London *Times* at Cairo telegraphs that in view of the critical condition of affairs, Dervish Pasha, the Turkish Commissioner, has agreed to accept joint responsibility with Arabi Pasha for the preservation of order.

The correspondent of the London *Daily News* at Alexandria telegraphed on Tuesday that the position of the Europeans there was a terrible one, and that any small force which the fleet could land would only excite the Arabs to a general massacre. Papers have been distributed among the populace exciting them, and summoning them to be ready at any moment. The Italian Consul has issued notice to all Italians to quit the country; and notwithstanding a proclamation by the other Consuls exhorting them to remain tranquil, and expressing confidence that the Army will be able to maintain order, Europeans are leaving Alexandria as fast as possible.

A despatch from London to the New York *Tribune* on Thursday said that Irish correspondents describe the temper of the popula-

tion as sour and sullen, and as showing settled disaffection, and the anticipation of a good harvest as being the only favorable element in the situation. On Thursday Walter M. Bourke, a Galway landlord, was shot dead while riding with an escort, a soldier, who was also killed. Mr. Bourke had had several disputes with his tenants, and recently left London to carry out evictions. The news of this murder created a profound sensation in the House of Commons. Mr. Parnell and other Irish members expressed regret at the assassination. When the news reached London Mr. Bourke's brother went into the lobby of the House of Commons and accused Mr. Parnell and Mr. Biggar of being the cause of it. The *Dublin Gazette* on Friday contained a proclamation offering a reward of £2,000 for information leading to the arrest and conviction of the murderers, and £1,000 for private information leading to the same result. This murder was followed by other outrages in different parts of Ireland.

The Irish Bishops have issued an address, promising the support of the clergy to the people in peacefully agitating for their rights, but condemning as the worst enemies to the country men who recommend illegal courses, particularly those who belong to secret societies. The address condemns refusing to pay just debts, preventing payment by others, injuring neighbors in person or property, forcibly resisting the law and forming secret societies and obeying the orders thereof, as unlawful and utterly subversive of social order, and impresses upon the people that what is morally wrong cannot be politically right. The address is signed by Cardinal McCabe, Archbishop McGettigan, Primate of All Ireland, Archbishop Croke, and twenty-two others.

In the House of Commons on Wednesday the discussion of the Repression Bill was resumed. Mr. Russell, Liberal member for Dundalk, offered an amendment defining intimidation as "threats or acts of violence to persons or property, or incitement thereto." Mr. Dillon defended boycotting, and Sir William Harcourt said the Government was willing to accept any amendment consistent with the putting down of boycotting. On Thursday Mr. Russell's amendment was rejected by a vote of 247 to 36. An amendment offered by Mr. Parnell defining intimidation, and limiting it to certain definite acts, was also rejected. On Friday more amendments to the paragraph of the bill defining intimidation were rejected. On Monday, clause four of the bill, defining and dealing with intimidation, was adopted. Clause five, concerning riots and other offences, was then taken up. Sub-section A of this clause was adopted. In the debate on this clause on Tuesday, various amendments proposed by Irish members were rejected, but Mr. Gladstone agreed that reentry into an evicted holding should not be punishable unless it was effected by force, and that of two magistrates exercising summary jurisdiction one must be a lawyer. Sir William Harcourt promised that the new summary jurisdiction, so far as it applied to assaults on bailiffs, etc., should be exercised only in proclaimed districts. The fifth clause was then adopted by a vote of 176 to 34.

The Home Rule members of Parliament, at a meeting on Monday night, decided not to offer any systematic obstruction to the Repression Bill.

The Irish judges have held a meeting, and passed resolutions protesting against the provision of the Repression Bill for the holding of trials by a commission of three judges without juries. In the event of the bill passing, with its obnoxious provisions, Baron Fitzgerald will resign. It is generally understood that when the bill passes, Mr. William Johnson, the present Attorney-General for Ireland, will be raised to the bench.

The London *Daily News*, commenting on Secretary Frelinghuysen's despatch of May 8 on the Clayton-Bulwer treaty, says that commercial as well as political considerations are

decisive against the position which Mr. Frelinghuysen has chosen to assume. The *Standard* says that "the answer to all this rhetoric [*i. e.*, of the despatch] is that the treaty has been made and ought to be kept."

The bill permitting marriage with a deceased wife's sister was defeated in the House of Lords, on Monday, on a motion ordering it to a second reading. The Prince of Wales, the Duke of Edinburgh, the Duke of Albany, and nearly all the members of the Government voted with the minority, but the bulk of the Conservatives and all the Bishops voted with the majority.

On Tuesday, the 13th, the French Chamber of Deputies passed to its second reading the bill establishing the divorce law. The Budget Committee rejected the grant for the maintenance of an embassy at the Vatican.

The family of Garibaldi decided to abandon the cremation of his body, "owing to practical difficulties in the way of its accomplishment," and on Thursday he was buried in the cemetery at Caprera. A storm of wind and rain raged the whole time. The coffin was borne by some of the survivors of the thousand of Marsala, and was followed by the Duke of Genoa, Signor Zanardelli, General Ferrero, representatives of both Chambers, and delegates of three hundred various associations. Speeches were delivered at the grave by the Vice-President of the Senate, the President of the Chamber of Deputies, the two Cabinet Ministers present, and Signor Crispi.

A great demonstration in memory of Garibaldi took place in Rome on Sunday. There was an immense procession, in which the bust of Garibaldi was borne on a car drawn by six white horses. An enormous crowd filled the streets and houses along the line of the procession. The buildings along the entire route were draped in mourning.

The Empress of Russia was safely delivered of a daughter on Tuesday. She will be named Olga.

An imperial decree has been published at St. Petersburg announcing that General Ignatieff, at his own request, has been relieved of the post of Minister of the Interior, on the ground of ill health, and has been appointed President of the Academy and Member of the Senate. He retains his membership of the Council of the Empire and his adjutancy. Count Tolstol, who was formerly President of the Academy, has been appointed Minister of the Interior. The retirement of General Ignatieff caused much satisfaction in Berlin and Vienna, and Russian funds rose on the London Stock Exchange on the receipt of the news. His successor represents the orthodox Russians, but has not General Ignatieff's extreme antipathy to Germany.

A despatch from St. Petersburg says that the appointment of Jews as chief surgeons in the Russian Army has been forbidden except on receipt of express instructions from the Commander-in-Chief.

The lower House of the Hungarian Diet has debated a petition of the authorities of Szathmar requesting that steps be taken to stop the immigration to that place of the Jews from Russia, and has approved a motion of the committee on the subject, that the Government adopt such police and sanitary measures with regard to the Jews as the circumstances may require.

Prince Bismarck made a speech in the Reichstag on Monday in support of the Tobacco Bill. He said the tobacco monopoly was an evil, but reform in taxation could not be effected without it. The bill for the remission of taxation, as proposed by the Government, would be reintroduced in the Reichstag and in the Prussian Diet, and if it was rejected he should, he said, appeal to the constituencies. He added that if he remained in office he did so only to keep his oath to the Emperor, and concluded by expressing the hope that party policy would give way before the feeling of nationality.

REFORMERS WHO DO NOT WISH TO REFORM.

ALTHOUGH the usual answer made to the civil-service reformers is that the civil service is well enough as it is, and could hardly be improved except through improvements in human nature, the attempts to tinker it by those who "have no faith in the theories of the reformers" are incessant. Bills intended to take the place of the bills of "the doctrinaires" are introduced nearly every session, but they usually give very little space to reform of any kind, and a good deal to a more equitable distribution of the patronage. In truth, to most Congressmen the one crying evil of the present system, and the only one which needs to be seriously dealt with, is the difficulty they have in getting what they consider their legitimate share of the offices. In trying to remedy this they are always willing to put in just enough mention of examinations, and qualifications, and morality, and efficiency, to give the mixture a reform color, just as old toppers in the cars like the contents of their flasks to have a deep brown hue so as to pass for cold tea.

One of these interesting bills is now before the House of Representatives, the father being Mr. Curtin, and it has been referred to the Committee on Reform in the Civil Service. In the opening of it there is a very stirring roll of the reform drum, well calculated to collect a large and excited audience. The candidates for admission to the clerical force are to be not less than eighteen or more than fifty years old, are to be of good moral character and habits, and are not to be admitted without "the preliminary examination now required by Section 169 of the Revised Statutes." This examination, however, was provided for in 1853, and is conducted by the heads of departments through some of their subordinates, and unfortunately has never been anything but a farce. We believe there is no case on record of its preventing "the right man" from getting the place. In fact, it is the examinations conducted under this statute which furnish Dr. Newman and the Stalwarts with the materials for that standing joke of theirs against the examinations of the civil-service reformers, about the candidates being asked the distance of the moon, and the names of the Shepherd Kings of Upper Egypt, and the best manner of cooking a shad. There is probably no piece of modern legislation which has furnished materials for more quiet mirth.

Throughout Mr. Curtin's bill, in fact, both admission to the service and promotion are carefully kept within the control of the heads of the departments, who are never directed to do anything which has a reform look, but are always told that they "may" do it. Moreover, the principle of "rotation" is carefully looked after by limiting the terms of "permanent appointments" to three years. Two years would, for the purposes of most Congressmen, be one-third better, because it would enable them to give one-third more workers a turn at the public crib; and to many men the supreme test of goodness in a civil service is the frequency with which access to the crib comes round. The most imposing

feature in the bill is, however, the provision made for the examination of "professionals" and "experts" for the various departments. This is to be conducted in writing by a "board," and it looks as if it would be worth something, and so it may be; but then the head of the department is not to be bound by it. He may set its conclusions aside, or give the place to any one of the candidates he pleases, or he may order another examination.

The gist, or backbone, or kernel of the bill is to be found in the section on "apportionment and nomination," in which, in Congressional eyes, the whole civil-service question lies, as in a nutshell. Most Congressmen, no matter how much they may seem to be listening to a civil-service reformer about qualifications, and tests, and competitive examinations, and efficiency, and merit, are in reality thinking about "apportionment and nomination." To them these are the milk in the cocoanut, the dewdrop on the lotus, as the Buddhists say, the Alpha and Omega, the beginning and the ending of all civil-service reform. Accordingly, Mr. Curtin proposes that all appointments in the Executive Departments "shall be made *pro rata* among Congressional districts, based on the apportionment under the tenth census, and on the appropriations for the fiscal year 1882-3, beginning with the States in alphabetical order," etc., etc. The nominations are then to be given to the Senators and Representatives of each State, each Senator keeping one-eighth of them. We have here given only the merest outline of the scheme. It is highly complex, and indeed we do not think it will be possible to give each Congressman his fair share without a liberal use of the calculus and the services of the Naval Observatory. To the outsider it is diverting as another of the attempts to postpone the evil day when no Congressman will be able to rely on patronage to give him weight or importance in the eyes of his constituents. The reason why so many cling to it is the fact that it furnishes a pedestal which raises some members a little above the plane along which their personal merits carry them.

MR. BLAINE'S METHOD AND MR. FRELINGHUYSEN'S.

MR. BLAINE is evidently still very sensitive about the unfortunate result of his various diplomatic enterprises, which is not surprising. His friends in the press accordingly every now and then try to give him a little rehabilitating flip. One of these appeared in the *Tribune* of Friday, in the shape of arguments of Mr. Blaine's against the continuance of the Clayton-Bulwer treaty, placed in parallel columns beside Mr. Frelinghuysen's arguments on the same subject, by way of showing that Mr. Frelinghuysen has not improved on Mr. Blaine. But this unfortunately does not help the latter. Nobody ever said that he was wrong in attacking the Clayton-Bulwer treaty, or that his arguments against its continuance in the despatch of November had no force. Nor is it to Mr. Frelinghuysen's discredit that, as the *Tribune* shows, he has used some of them. The reasons for abrogating a

treaty are always few in number, and easily discovered by all intelligent men who have considered the subject. In order to give a true comparative view of the Blaine and Frelinghuysen modes of conducting a diplomatic controversy, we must not simply compare two despatches written on the same subject, but compare *all* the despatches written by each on the same subject.

Under this rule Mr. Blaine cuts a somewhat grotesque figure in the Panama controversy, for he began his attack on the Clayton-Bulwer treaty not by the despatch of November last, but by the despatch of June last, in which he resorted to the very singular device of making no mention of the Clayton-Bulwer treaty at all. He wished to warn England and all other European powers from meddling with the projected canal across the isthmus. As far as England was concerned, the unabrogated Clayton-Bulwer treaty stood directly in his way, and he accordingly attacked it by ignoring it—a childlike expedient, to which neither Mr. Frelinghuysen nor any other diplomatist is likely to resort. This despatch of June 24 discusses with much solemnity the treaty of 1846, made between the United States and the republic of New Granada, and directs Mr. Lowell to call Lord Granville's attention to it as constituting an insurmountable obstacle to British interference with Central American concerns, and as alone governing American action with regard to the neutrality of the canal. The originality of this consists in the fact that the Clayton-Bulwer treaty, which admitted Great Britain to participation in the neutrality guarantee, was made four years later than the treaty with New Granada, and the only hope of the success of Mr. Blaine's mode of abrogating it lay, therefore, in the chance that the British Foreign Office had forgotten its existence. Unfortunately some record of it seems to have been kept in London, so that Lord Granville was able to overthrow Mr. Blaine's maiden effort as a diplomatist by producing it. We cannot recall in diplomatic history any discomfiture of a middle-aged man so complete as this was, and it was made all the more complete by the fact that Mr. Blaine's despatch was couched in very menacing terms, and, in fact, intimated pretty distinctly that any want of respect on the part of Great Britain for the treaty with New Granada would put her peaceful relations with this country in serious peril.

It was only five months later, after Lord Granville, in a dry and slightly ironical manner, had called attention to the Clayton-Bulwer treaty, that Mr. Blaine took it up, and began the controversy which Mr. Frelinghuysen is now carrying on, with many improvements in tone, and temper, and English. It no doubt strikes Mr. Blaine's admirers as rather remarkable that he should use some of Mr. Blaine's arguments, but they must observe he does not use them all. He overlooks, for instance, the New Granada treaty, which was Mr. Blaine's *cheval de bataille*, and which nobody but an unusually unscrupulous person would meddle with. It would not enrich Mr. Frelinghuysen if he stole it, and would make Mr. Blaine poor indeed if he lost it, for it was his only original contribution to the controversy.

DOCTOR AND PATIENT.

THE action of the American Medical Convention at St. Paul, in excluding the New York delegates, seems to have been, from a professional point of view, unavoidable. The New York State Medical Society had, at its meeting in February last, passed a vote permitting practitioners of the "regular" school to hold consultations with homœopaths. This vote was in conflict with the rules of the American Society, which had nothing to do but to punish the New York branch for its violation of them.

The action of the Association will probably lead to a new discussion of the matter in the New York society, its action in February being regarded by its members as by no means conclusive. The view taken of the matter by the physicians who support the "code of ethics," as stated by one of them in an interview last Friday, is that "no possible good could result from consultations in which there could be no possibility of an agreement"; and that "so long as they (the homœopaths) insist on the dogma that like cures like, we cannot but regard them as irregular, and no member of the regular profession can with dignity recognize them."

Now, if it could be proved in any way that it was true that "no good" could come of any such consultations, the position of the regular practitioners would not be worth disputing about. But it can only be true if homœopathic practice can be shown to be pure quackery. If homœopaths are mere quacks, who practise upon the credulity of the public, like astrologers or "weather prophets," then the regular physicians are performing a public service by discrediting them in every way that they can, and it is not merely undignified, but dishonest to consult with them. But the homœopaths are not in this position at all. They constitute an important and growing branch of the medical profession. They have obtained legal recognition for their chartered institutions, and they have plenty of them. There are some 8,000 homœopathic physicians in the United States, and a dozen homœopathic colleges, turning out a couple of hundred new physicians every year. There are, of course, no statistics to show how many families or individuals are dependent upon this body for medical advice and care, but the number embraces a very considerable proportion of the population, whom it would be appalling and absurd, too, to think of as given over entirely to the care of quacks and cheats.

The fact is, that medical science is not in a condition which entitles any one to say that the profession of a particular dogma like that of the homœopaths makes him an impostor. What little is known about the effect of drugs upon the human body is the result of experiment, and the homœopath deduces his "dogma" from experience, just as the regular practitioner does his belief that there is nothing in it. As to which is right and which is wrong, the layman is usually profoundly ignorant, and it must be remembered that the layman's experience of medicine usually inclines him to be very sceptical on the subject. Every one sees so many mistakes continually made both in diagnosis and treat-

ment that he cannot but recognize the fact that mere "regularity" of dogmatic opinion with regard to disease or the *materia medica* is very far from insuring success, and that in nine cases out of ten what makes a man a good doctor is not only science but natural aptitude and individual experience.

We have the medical profession thus divided into two bodies, both of which believe equally in the importance of professional training, and the possibility of treating disease according to rules derived from experience; both of which possess a high degree of skill, training, and education. They differ as to a dogma of the truth of which laymen have hardly any means of judging. Few laymen who go for advice to a doctor who maintains the truth of this dogma, do so because they care anything about the dogma; they do so simply because they think him a good doctor, and find that he brings them and their wives and children through their various ailments with success. Frequently, however, they find that even a good doctor's skill is baffled, and then very likely they would like to call in another good doctor, of what is to them simply a rival "school." But now they find themselves confronted with a strict rule that the two cannot consult, because one of them believes that diseases should be treated by drugs whose effects, tested on the body in health, are similar to the symptoms present in disease. The layman wants to call them in because they belong to different schools, and he wants to have the benefit of the difference; but for this very reason he cannot get them.

The physicians ought, in any future discussion of the question, to take into account, more than they are usually willing to do, the layman's view of the subject. To him the rule forbidding the regular practitioner to consult with a homœopath, simply means that he is cut off by a dispute which he cares little about from getting all the available experience and advice within reach on what may be a matter of life and death. He does not regard, and can never be brought to regard, a highly-educated and trained physician as a "quack" merely because of a difference between him and his rival round the corner on a recondite matter like that which divides homœopaths from allopaths, and, therefore, he looks upon the rule as a mere piece of superstition. The enormous growth of the homœopathic body in the last fifty years shows that the rule does not prevent what the regulars regard as medical error from spreading, and if the rule does not prevent this, would its abrogation be attended by any very dreadful consequences? If a regular physician sees that "no good" can result from a consultation because no agreement is possible, he will no doubt always withdraw of himself; and so will a homœopath. If either thinks his "dignity" compromised by the meeting, he will not come to it. Will it do any harm to humor the layman a little in the matter?

THE FRENCH JUDICIARY.

THE French Assembly has taken the somewhat startling step of voting, by a considerable majority, and in the teeth of the opposition of the Ministry, to make the

judiciary elective. The vote has naturally caused a good deal of surprise, and doubtless, also, a good deal of alarm, though it is not quite as serious as it looks, for it does not appear to contemplate anything more than the election of the judges by some sort of electoral body created *ad hoc*. If we may judge by the recommendations of the Committee on Judicial Reform, which recently made its report, we may, in the absence of fuller news than that of the telegraph, conclude that the majority does not propose to select judges by universal suffrage, but simply to have "them elected for a fixed term by a special electoral body (*corps électoral spécial*), chosen under conditions to be hereafter determined." The question of "judicial reform" has, almost ever since the Republic fairly came into power, been one of the burning questions of French politics, owing to the highly partisan character of the bench, which differs considerably in its organization and composition both from that of England and the United States. Its greatest peculiarity in Anglo-Saxon eyes is that it is composed not of successful advocates, as in England, and to some extent here, but of professional judges—that is, of men who never practise at the bar at all, but begin by appointment as judges of a low grade, and look for success through promotion to the upper courts. In England the judges are chosen by two processes, not unlike that by which bishops are chosen in the Catholic Church by the priests, who vote for three candidates as "dignus, dignior, dignissimus," respectively, one of whom the Pope appoints. The British Minister, in like manner, appoints the judge, but he is compelled by usage, which has the force of law, to make his choice from among a small body of men, who have previously been sifted out from the mass of the bar by receiving from the public a large professional practice. In other words, the judge is always a successful barrister before he becomes judge, so that the question whether he shall ever be a candidate for the bench is determined by the litigants of the various courts.

In this country we started with a rule of the same kind. In the earlier days of the Republic it was generally the successful lawyers who were made judges, and the judicial salaries were made sufficiently high to tempt them. In the Federal service, and in those States in which judges are still appointed, this rule is yet as closely adhered to as the modern lowness of judicial salaries will permit. The places are offered to as good lawyers as can be got to accept them at the rate of payment. In the States in which election has been substituted for appointment, politics has had in a greater or less degree the effect of making the judicial office a part of the spoils, and treating it as the reward of party service, discarding large practice or long experience as a qualification for it. Nevertheless, the Anglo-Saxon tradition that a judge ought to have previously been a successful advocate is still strong all over the country, and disregard of it is still reprobated by public opinion.

In France, however, there is no such feeling or tradition. A judge may begin judg-

ing when he is twenty-five, without ever having found anybody willing to take him as a legal adviser, and he makes his way up in the scale by the favor of the Government pure and simple. There is no other mode of testing his merits. In 1789 the National Assembly, in the first moments of reforming enthusiasm, made the judges elective by the people, and that they should be elected by the people is still one of the Republican traditions. But it has, ever since the overthrow of the first Republic, been treated by Conservatives as one of the dangerous schemes of the Reds. All true French Conservatives hold to an irremovable, appointed, and promoted judiciary as one of the anchors of the state. It is not wonderful that, after eighty years, such a system should have produced a bench which regards itself not as a branch of the Government, separate and apart from the Executive, but as a part of the Administration, and charged with the defence of the existing régime in one field, as the Army is in another. Nor is it surprising that the French bench should be even now, or until very lately, intensely monarchical. The Republic in France has never lasted very long. It has always been the product of insurrection, too, and its existence has been marked by great disorders, and in fact it may be said that ever since the Dixhuit Brumaire, Republican and criminal have been to French judges synonymous terms.

When the present Republicans came into power, therefore, they found the judiciary bitterly hostile. Few judges, if any, believed in the permanence of the Republican régime, and there was something shocking to them in the presence in high office of a parcel of political adventurers, many of whom they had had to try under the Empire, and all of whom they had longed to try. Accordingly, the last ten years have been full of judicial scandals, caused either by the alleged partiality of Bonapartist or Legitimist judges, in Government prosecutions as well as private suits, or by the indiscreet language of judges with regard to the Government or the Ministers of the day. Besides this there have been large numbers of judges who were not indiscreet on the bench, but who off the bench made no secret of their contempt for the Republic, and their belief in its evanescence. This has been very provoking to the Republicans, and all the more so because the remedy was not easy. Anti-Republican military men were readily disciplined, and so were disaffected civil servants. But the judges could not be got at, because they were irremovable. The only way of punishing them was by refusing promotion, and, in the lower grades, sending them to disagreeable districts.

After prolonged agitation, the majority in the Chamber of Deputies has taken the bull by the horns by adopting the report and bill of the Committee on Judicial Reform, which reduces considerably the number of courts and judges—thereby rectifying an undoubted abuse of the monarchical régime, abolishes the permanence of tenure, and recommends election by some other body than the Government. In fact, if the permanence was abolished, it seemed impossible to leave the

appointment to the Government, with unlimited liberty of choice. The substitute proposed seems to be, as we have said, election by some sort of electoral college created for the purpose, or, in other words, election by two degrees. But that this would long stave off popular election pure and simple, or would in the meantime protect the independence of the judges against popular passion, is very unlikely. The French are fully as intolerant as Americans of two degrees of election, and will manage just as readily to get rid of one of them in fact if not in form. Of the gravity of the change there can be no doubt, especially as it has been resolved on by the majority in defiance of the Ministry. It will dishearten greatly the large body of moderate Republicans who have feared all along that the Republic would perish through its inability to satisfy both the Democratic leanings and the national pride of the French people. Granting all that is said of the desire of the French to see their institutions thoroughly democratized, it remains true that they will never be content with a Government which does not supply an efficient army and perfect security for property. But, say the Conservatives, the army cannot be efficient, French character remaining what it is, if its organization be as democratic as the Radicals insist on making it, and property cannot be secure with removable and elected judges; and with a bad army and bad judiciary France will cut such a contemptible figure in foreign affairs that the people will be mortified beyond endurance, and get rid of the Republic by way of relief.

THE OPENING OF THE ST. GOTHARD TUNNEL.

MILAN, May 22, 1882.

ITALY, Germany, Switzerland, and we may say all Europe, have participated with thorough satisfaction in the ceremonies attendant on the opening of the St. Gothard Tunnel; but, as is usually the case, the promoter, the initiator, of that great international work has been almost entirely forgotten in his birthplace, Milan, as in his beloved Lugano, where he spent the last twenty years of his life in study and poverty, dying there in 1860. Carlo Cattaneo, the greatest philosopher and political economist of modern Italy, the guide and inspirer of the Five Days of Milan in 1848, when the unarmed citizens defeated and drove out from their city the entire Austrian Army under Radetsky, as early as 1850 insisted on the tunnel through the St. Gothard, in the interests of Italy and Switzerland alike. We have even now before us his letter to the Genoese, showing to them "that, the new current of commerce coming from Suez, it behooved them to prepare to take advantage thereof." After passing in review the various projects for the Splügen and other passes, he continued:

"St. Gothard is not only a predestined railroad, it is a map of railroads which unite and open out for themselves a common centre; it is the military centre of Switzerland, the fortress of liberty. The safety of those Alps is our safety; the pre-Alpine line from Brescia, from Bergamo, from Lecco acquires fresh and practical value from the union of the plains of Erba with Como. The two cities of Como and of Lecco gain other advantages; the railroad from Varese must be extended to the Lake of Como, the railroad from the Lake of Garda be led up to Orta. All the industries of the higher valleys connected, commerce will be doubled by the completion of the Simplon and Mont Cenis railroads. Fortunate Genoa, which in this heritage

of nature has the lion's share, such is the free interval from Constance to Basle, with almost the entire valley of the Po and of the Rhine, together with the long list of industrial cities, Zürich, Strassburg, Mannheim, Frankfurt, Coblenz, Cologne, Elberfeld, Amsterdam, Rotterdam, Liège, Brussels, Antwerp, Ostend. The natural port of the Valley of the Rhine on the Mediterranean is Genoa. Genoa and Hamburg will be the two ports on which the Swiss will think when they think of their own homes."

Cattaneo then went on to show how the line of the St. Gothard offered to Genoa the shortest line of communication, surpassing in this respect, for the special commerce of Italy, the Lukmanier, the Simplon, the Cenis, or the Brenner, and, as regards foreign commerce, uniting Genoa with the above-mentioned cities by a much shorter line than they could be with Marseilles: how, in a word, as soon as the St. Gothard railroad should be completed, Genoa could take into her own hands the commerce of the German Rhine with the East in the place of Marseilles. His counsels, eagerly listened to by the Genoese, were enthusiastically accepted by the Swiss, but it was not until April, 1869, that a regular project was presented to the Swiss Federal Council, to the Italian Government, and to the Confederation of Northern Germany for the perforation of the St. Gothard.

The St. Gothard, until the present century, had been one of the least frequented passes, although the hospital of the monks of St. Gothard was founded in 1331. In 1816, however, a regular post between five Swiss cantons and Milan was established, yet up to 1820 the path was only practicable for horses and pedestrians, and until lately the journey from Lucerne to Turin occupied twenty-five hours and a-half, whereas the same journey henceforward will occupy but eight hours. The convention for the construction of this railroad was signed by Italy and Switzerland in 1863, and in 1870 the North German Confederation adhered to the Convention. Engineer Gelpke and the geometrician Koppe were the chief designers. At first seven companies sent in their estimates—one Swiss, one Franco-Swiss, one Italian, one German, two English, one American. Finally L. Favre, of Geneva, and the Italian Society of Public Works in Turin, headed by Grattoni, the constructor of the tunnel through Mont Cenis, were the only competitors, and to Favre the contract was assigned, his offer being considered the most advantageous. Meanwhile, the administration of the St. Gothard railway had arranged for the commencement of the excavations of the grand tunnel, begun in June, 1873. For the perforation the waters of the Reuss were utilized on the northern slope, those of Val Tremola on the southern. In 1879, Favre, who directed all the works in person, died suddenly of apoplexy in the tunnel as he was explaining the operations to some foreign visitors; nor was he the only victim, 179 workmen having lost their lives by accidents or suffocation, while hundreds of others have contracted maladies which sooner or later will bring them to the grave. One special form of anæmia, caused, it is said, by the insect *Anchylostomum duodenale*, has proved and is proving most fatal; indeed, a special hospital and convalescent home is being constructed for the survivors. The work, which was never interrupted, day or night, occupied nine years and three months—3,330 days in all. The first estimates of the sum total to be expended amounted to 237 millions of francs, of which Italy agreed to pay 55 millions, while various municipalities and provinces made up another 15 millions; Germany and Switzerland contributed 63 millions, the remainder of the sum being made up by shares, of which a vast number are held by Italians, so that in fact Italy has contributed far more than half of the

sum total, the province and city of Milan alone furnishing two millions and a half.

The gallery of the St. Gothard runs in a straight line from the village of Göschenen to Albinengo, a village to the west of Airolo. The tunnel to be excavated along this line was 14,912 metres long, 2,700 metres longer than the gallery of Mont Cenis. In order to join it with the railroad which comes toward Airolo in an east-to-west direction, another gallery of 150 metres was excavated. The altitude at the entrance of the tunnel at Göschenen is 1,109 metres above the sea level; in the centre 50 metres higher, at Airolo 40 metres higher. The geological formation differs essentially from that of the Cottian Alps. The bore of the gallery, after some 2,000 metres of granite or granite-gneiss, entered into crystalline schist, intersected with veins of serpentine, a mass, in short, of the hardest rock, which at first threatened to baffle the perforating machines. The hydraulic works were also extremely tedious, owing to the difficulty of obtaining a sufficiently strong body of water from the Reuss, while, on the Airolo side, during the winter, avalanches often obstructed the bed of the Tremola, rendering it necessary to excavate a bed under the snow. Signor Favre, in order to overcome the difficulty with the Reuss, constructed an enormous reservoir and a canal, while to baffle the avalanches he caused the water to be conducted by means of a wooden canal into the bed of a minor torrent, the Chisso, less subject to avalanches. Other difficulties were encountered and overcome by his indomitable will, so that at his death it may be said that only the mechanical portion of the work remained. This was completed really in December, 1881, but the inauguration was delayed until yesterday, owing to various circumstances.

It was hoped that the King of Italy would have been present, but neither he nor the Prime Minister was able to attend; instead of them, the Foreign Minister, Mancini, the Minister of Public Works, Baccarini, and the very unpopular Minister of the Navy, Acton, were the sole representatives of the Italian Government. The inaugural train conveying them, the Presidents of the Chamber and the Senate, and the German Ambassador, together with the syndics of Genoa, Turin, and Milan, and about four hundred invited guests, left Milan yesterday morning. I cannot say that any particular interest was manifested at the Italian stations, and it is presumable that the indifference is owing to the all-absorbing *cavalieri* (silkworms), which do literally absorb the thoughts, hands, time, and sentiment of every man, woman, and child in the country throughout Northern Italy at this season of the year. At Chiasso, however, that once so dreaded frontier town in the bad old days, when ten to one the incomer from free Switzerland was repulsed by the suspicious Austrian sentinel, a number of maidens, all dressed in white, presented the chief guests with beautiful bouquets of flowers, and at Lugano, that asylum of Italian exiles, where Mazzini spent great part of his time in planning expeditions, printing clandestine papers, receiving and despatching conspirators, and where, as we have said, Cattaneo lived and died, a modest but substantial breakfast was prepared, while the enthusiasm at the successive stations, Claro, Osogna, Biasca, Giornico, Faido, up to Airolo, the unfeigned delight and the cordial welcome afforded by the inhabitants, and the joyous cries of "Viva l'Italia!" from the children of the communal schools, formed a pleasing contrast with the cold reception which all remarked on the Italian side. From Lugano to Bellinzona there are eight galleries, the longest of which, that of the Ceneri, is two kilometres in length, and we shot through in three

minutes and a half. From Bellinzona to Airolo there were thirteen other galleries; finally, a few yards beyond the station of Airolo, you enter the tunnel, and whatever may have been one's former experience, I doubt if any of the persons whirled through those 15,000 metres—darkness above, below, around, the air hot and damp—arrived at the other end after twenty minutes' flight without a feeling of intense satisfaction that they were through, and well through, without the slightest accident. Perhaps the predominant feeling of suffocation was owing to the weather; certainly, as far as comfort goes, the old days of coaching and diligences have left enviable memories. Between Göschenen and Brunnen there are twenty-seven other galleries. Often the railroad runs level with the post-road, and you see the old vehicles rumbling along as though the tunnel were nothing to them. The view of the roaring, seething Reuss and of the Lake of the Four Cantons was, despite the gloom of the day, magnificent. The courtesy of the officials along the *Gothardbahn* was especially remarked by the Italians, as forming a noteworthy contrast with their own rude, domineering railway officials, and it was hoped by more than one that their superior, Baccarini, himself by no means noted for courtesy, would take and teach a lesson to his subalterns.

I pass over the speeches, which have probably done service on every similar occasion. The speakers, like the press, omitted any mention of Cattaneo, which incensed not a few of his disciples present. At Lucerne the reception equalled, if it did not surpass, that of Lugano. All the guests—the Italians on one steamer, the Germans on another—crossed the lake up to Brunnen, where, after a short journey on the ordinary railway, special trains, consisting of two carriages each, took us up 1,800 metres to the summit of the Rigi, whose mountain sides are literally furrowed with rails and sown with villas. The octogenarian Tecchio, one of the oldest Italian Liberals, now President of the Senate, was the first to arrive, and was loudly applauded by his countrymen. A breakfast was prepared for 500 persons at the grand hotel Rigikulu, whence the view is beautiful beyond words—here snow-mantled winter, there spring merging into summer. At Lucerne, on our return, there was considerable confusion. The German Ministers Bismarck, Von Boetticher, and Hatzfeldt were lost in the common herd, but took it most good-temperedly, and the dinner at the Schweizerhof, a fine hotel on the lake, passed off pleasantly enough until Baccarini tired out the guests with a long and pompous speech. That of the Syndic of Milan was, on the contrary, short and sweet; he made a pleasant reference to the numbers of Swiss resident in Milan, to their industry and law-abidingness, which are, in fact, noteworthy, and trusted that the colossal work brought to such a successful termination would augment and cement the friendship between the two countries. Of this there can be little doubt, provided no political annexation schemes be again set on foot by Italian statesmen. Well do we remember, when it was proposed to annex the Italian Tessin to Piedmont, how Cattaneo, with incisive phrase, made answer: "Why kill a nightingale to add an ounce of fat to a goose?" The absence of Frenchmen from among the guests was remarkable, but Americans and Englishmen were largely represented, all expressing their satisfaction at the successful termination of the enterprise and the cordial harmony that prevailed throughout the inaugural festival.

It remains now to be seen whether Genoa will have sufficient skill and enterprise to profit by this enormous boon. It will not suffice that she is the nearest port to the great commercial cities of Germany and Switzerland. She must render

her port and harbor safe and commodious as is Marseilles, her ship dues as low, her porters less insolent and exorbitant in their charges, or else the great French seaport will continue to 'out-rival her as heretofore.

THE CORRESPONDENCE OF GEORGE SAND.—II.

PARIS, May 24, 1882.

I MUST return to the correspondence of Madame Sand, and I take it up where I left it, in the year 1833. The more I read this correspondence, the more I think that nature made a mistake when she gave to Madame Sand the feminine sex. She was in reality a man: all the attributes of her character are virile, and none are feminine. She was brave, hard-working, domineering; she was a good father rather than a good mother to her children; she was with everybody what the French call a good *camarade*; she cared really for nothing except independence—she hated any kind of restraint. To M. Rollinat, at Châteauroux: "Socially, I am free and more happy. My position is externally calm, independent, advantageous. But in order to reach it, you don't know what terrible storms I have gone through. To tell you, I should have to spend many evenings in the walks of Nohant, under the stars, in this great silence we both like so much." This was the time when she had just written 'Lélia,' the most eloquent and also the most morbid of her books—a work which in parts seems almost insane, full of what might be called sentimental depravity, the apotheosis of passion unbridled, unchained, sovereign of man and things. She spoke the truth when she wrote to Madame —: "I have studied nothing; I know nothing—not even my own language. My brain has so little exactitude in it that I have never been able to learn the smallest rule of arithmetic. . . . I have only sensations, and no will. For what, for whom should I have a will? Besides two or three persons, the universe does not exist for me. You see that I am good for nothing."

At the end of 1833, she started for Italy. She admired the valley of the Rhone, but found the cities of Lyons, Avignon, and Marseilles "stupid." She was in Venice in March, 1834.

"Venice," she says, "is the finest thing in the world. All this Moorish architecture, in white marble in the midst of limpid water and under a magnificent sky; this people, so gay, so thoughtless, so full of song, so spirited; these gondolas; these churches and galleries of pictures; all the women pretty or elegant; the sea; a moonlight such as you see nowhere else; serenades under the windows; cafes full of Turks and Armenians; great and fine theatres, where Pasta and Donzelli sing; magnificent palaces; . . . what more can you want?"

She wrote and worked in this beautiful Venice. "I bless my grandmother, who gave me this habit of work. The habit has become a faculty, and the faculty a need. I have come to this: I can work, without being ill, thirteen hours in succession; but, on the average, seven or eight hours a day. My work gives me a good deal of money and takes much of my time, which otherwise I should employ in having the spleen, as my bilious temperament would produce it. . . . I regret that my money difficulties always force me to draw something out of my brain without giving me time to place something new in it. I wish I had a whole year of solitude and of complete liberty, so as to fill my head with all the foreign masterpieces which I know imperfectly." But she had no time for reading; after having blackened paper for hours, she ran to the Piazza San Marco, took coffee and smoked cigarettes, and tried her Italian with some Italian friends.

Life is still cheap in Venice; it was then even

cheaper, and she was able to economize. She sent her manuscripts to Buloz, the editor of the *Revue des Deux Mondes*, and lived like a student. She was not alone; Alfred de Musset was with her. He left her, to return to Paris, at the beginning of April. He had been very ill.

"He is still very delicate for undertaking this long journey. I am not without uneasiness on this point; but it was worse for him to remain than to leave, and every day spent in waiting for a return of his health retarded instead of accelerating it. He is gone at last, under the care of a very good and devoted servant. The doctor [Dr. Pagello] answers for his lungs, if he will take care of them; but I am not very tranquil. We have left each other for a few months, perhaps for ever."

It was for ever. The sad story has been told in 'Elle et Lui,' in 'Lui et Elle.' Musset and Madame Sand were not in reality made for each other. They were both irrational, unconscious slaves of their sensations, and fond of new sensations. If they had any sentiment of duty, it was to hate duty. One was the most sensitive of poets, the other the most insatiable searcher after new sensations, new ideas, new figures. They met for a moment, and fled away from each other almost with a sentiment of repulsion; to them love was almost less than a caprice. Madame Sand could only be faithful as a friend; she really despised those who fell in love with her—she looked upon them as inferior beings. We find in a letter from Venice some explanations on the subject of the relations of Madame Sand with Gustave Planché, who was for a long time the great critic of the *Revue des Deux Mondes*. She says that Planché never took the trouble to play with her the part of a lover. "Our affection was quiet and fraternal. . . .

The friendship of Planché, the memory of his devotion, of his inexhaustible kindness to me, will always remain in my life and in my heart."

After leaving Alfred de Musset at Vicenza, Madame Sand made a little excursion on foot in the Alps, along the valley of the Brenta. She returned to Venice with seven centimes in her pocket. If she had not been so poor, she would have gone into the Tyrol. In her journeys in Italy she did not spend more than five francs a day, but she always travelled on foot or on a donkey. She was still in Venice in the mid-summer of 1834, working "like a horse," to pay the expenses of her Italian journey. She sent articles to the *Revue* which are full of beautiful descriptions of Italian life and scenery. Buloz only sent her money by dribblets; it was a sort of principle with him to give as little as possible at a time to his great writers—he looked upon necessity as the great inspirer of the muses. In August, 1834, she returned to Paris; she had taken with her her Italian doctor Pagello, whom she thus describes: "Pagello is a brave and worthy man, of your sort, good and devoted as you are [this she writes to the faithful Boucôran]. I owe to him my life and Alfred's. Pagello intends to stay a few months in Paris." She herself made a visit to Nohant, in order to see her daughter Solange. She invited Pagello to make a visit to Nohant, with the permission of M. Dudevant. I cannot discover from the correspondence whether this visit was made or not. Madame Sand must have been very fond of writing letters, since, with all her enormous work, she found time to write pages in this style:

"I have never had for you [M. François Rollinat, of Châteauroux] either any moral love [what does she mean by that?] or physical love; but, from the day when I first knew you, I felt one of those rare, profound, and invincible sympathies which nothing can alter. I have not found you superior to me by nature; otherwise, I should have conceived for you the sort of enthusiasm which leads to love; but I have found you my equal—*mio compare*, as they say in Venice. You were better than myself, as you

were younger, as you had lived less in the storm, as God had placed you at once in a finer and straighter way. But you had come out of his hand with the same sum of virtues and of defects, of greatness and misery, as myself."

Really, when Madame Sand wrote such letters, she must have been preparing herself for a novel.

All the letters of this period show a sort of exaltation, and at the same time of discouragement. Madame Sand was out of equilibrium, struggling hard, exciting herself, so to speak, one hour, and the next hour falling back on a natural *fonds of bonhomie* and of simplicity. She was simple by nature and complex by effort; good by nature, misanthropic and bitter by the result of her life. "Society," she writes to Madame d'Agoult, who wrote under the name of Daniel Stern, "is bad and cruel. Our passions are neither good nor bad." She had no system of philosophy, no religion, no politics; she was constantly feeling her way in every direction. When she writes to her son, whom she really loved, she is careful what she says. Here is a letter to him:

"Work; be strong, be proud, be independent. . . . We resemble each other in our souls as well as in our faces. I can see now what your intellectual life is to be. I fear profound pain for you, and hope also for very pure joys. Keep in yourself the treasure of goodness. Learn how to give without hesitation, to lose without regret; learn how to harbor in your heart the happiness of those whom you love in place of the happiness which you will not have yourself! Keep the hope of an after life, of a place where the mothers will find again their sons. Love all the creatures of God; forgive all those who are disgraced; resist the unjust; devote yourself to those who are great by their virtues. Love me! I will teach you many things if we live together. If we have not that happiness (the greatest that I can imagine, and the only one which makes me desire a long life), you will pray God for me; and from the darkness of death, if something remains of me, your mother will watch over you."

This volume would be worth reading and keeping were it only for a letter like this!

Monsieur Dudevant was certainly not worthy of his wife. He drank habitually, and when drunk he sometimes became violent. After a scene which had nearly become tragical, Madame Sand resolved to make a formal suit of separation. There was no divorce then, as there is none now, in France; but under some circumstances a *séparation de corps* can be pronounced by the judge. On both sides there was an abundance of reasons. Madame Sand had from time to time returned to Nohant, but practically she had assumed a complete liberty. She was the richer of the two—Nohant belonged to her; she offered to give her husband a pension, and she undertook to pay for the maintenance and education of her children herself.

We find her at the end of this first volume in correspondence with the famous Franz Liszt. She was always attracted by all the extraordinary men; and it did not take long to make her intimate with them. It was one of the most curious traits of her character that, as soon as she saw somebody, she treated him as if she had known him from childhood. The last letter of the volume is dated June 28, 1836. She informs us that her lawsuit was not yet concluded. Meanwhile, she was writing letters and novels in a most extraordinary mood. She was becoming a Socialist, and entered into communication with the Saint-Simonians and the Republicans.

Correspondence.

MR. RICE ONCE MORE.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: If you will permit me again to encroach to a small extent upon your space, I should like

to remind Mr. Rice that in my note I distinctly disclaimed the intention of refuting his argument, and merely cited one passage as an *illustration* of his unfitness to deal with the subject. In that passage Mr. Rice undertook to expose a confusion of ideas on the part of Ricardo concerning the latter's "own fundamental proposition"; and in this connection the object or general drift of Mr. Rice's article was an entirely irrelevant matter. Perhaps you will allow me to add that I very fully agree with Mr. Adams in his remarks in yesterday's issue, and that what I had in mind in my first note, as preferable to the *Nation's* review, was not "silent contempt," but that judicious, though distinctly spoken, contempt in which the *Nation* is usually anything but deficient.

Yours, very respectfully,

X.

BALTIMORE, June 9, 1882.

Notes.

D. APPLETON & Co. are about issuing, in twelve monthly volumes, small 18mo, an elegant edition of Shakspeare's works, printed from new type, on linen paper, and bound in vellum.

B. Westermann & Co. send us the first instalment of a new illustrated edition of Goethe's Works, now publishing at Stuttgart, under the competent editorial supervision of Heinrich Düntzer. It will match the illustrated Schiller already put forth by the Deutsche Verlags-Anstalt, of which more than 50,000 copies have been sold, and the same firm's illustrated Shakspeare. There will be eighty-five instalments in all. No one can complain of the paucity of the illustrations and other pictorial adornments of this edition, which are naturally of a popular character. The form is large 8vo.

L'Art offers gratuitously to each subscriber for the present year a premium plate etched by M. Ulysse Butin, after his own picture in the Salon of 1875, entitled "L'Attente." Mr. J. W. Bouton will deliver it with the next quarterly volume, about July 15.

Waterton's 'Wanderings in South America,' after J. G. Wood's edition, the illustrations included, is the latest sixpenny venture of Macmillan & Co. in the form and after the fashion of the Franklin Square Library. Such a work as this, despite the defects and idiosyncrasies of the author and the shortcomings of the editor, deserves a wide circulation, and is well chosen for popular reading.

Dodd, Mead & Co. have also come into this new (and to the genuine book-lover still strange) field of competition with a twenty-cent edition of E. P. Roe's 'Barriers Burned Away.' The story has been revised by the author.

Edmund Burke's 'Thoughts on the Cause of the Present Discontents,' in Ireland, in 1770, namely, have just been made accessible in a cheap pamphlet published by M. H. Gill & Son, Dublin. Mr. Vincent Scully furnishes an introduction.

The Boston Civil-Service Reform Association has printed two prize essays on the general subject prepared by college students (in this case both graduates of not more than five years' standing). The award of the first prize was unaffected by the fact that the essay did not conform entirely to the views of the Association.

Nature (May 18, 25) is publishing a summary review of Darwin's career by several hands, directed by Dr. G. J. Romanes. The first paper is chiefly biographical; the second shows the great naturalist's contributions to geologic science and insight. It appears that Mr. Darwin's father, a physician, "had a wonderful power of diagnosing diseases, both bodily and mental, by the aid of the fewest number of questions"; and even of

divining what was passing through his patients' minds. Darwin himself was first intended for the same profession, but, as it was repugnant to him, he was on the eve of entering the Church when the post of naturalist on the *Beagle* expedition was secured for him by Professor Henslow, to whose instruction Darwin owed his impulse in the direction of physical research. The voyage which determined his life-work and imperishable fame, also proved ruinous to his health, by inducing a chronic indigestion. *Nature* states that the memorial fund about to be raised in his honor is designed to include an effigy of Darwin, as well as an endowment for the furtherance of biology.

Part 6 of Reiss and Stübel's 'Necropolis of Ancon, in Peru' (Dodd, Mead & Co.), contains one plate showing a gorgeous mummy pack, the rest being wholly devoted to cotton and woollen fabrics (often conjoined)—borders, fringes, trimmings, etc. In these fresh examples of a highly advanced art, one is struck by the brilliancy and harmony of the coloring, as well as by the beauty of the designs, of which the decoration abounds in animal figures in all stages of conventionalism. They form, as we may already have remarked, a "grammar of ornament." The fidelity of the lithographic facsimiles is most illusive.

We have received from the Ann Arbor Printing and Publishing Company a 4to volume of 240 pages, consisting of tables for the calculation of interest, discount, the value of investments, annuities, and related subjects, prepared by the late Professor Watson while Director of the Observatory at Ann Arbor, and Professor of Astronomy in the University of Michigan and Actuary of the Michigan Mutual Life Insurance Company. The explanations accompanying the tables are very full and precise, and there seems to be hardly any question relating to the subjects above mentioned to which these tables do not afford an answer. We have examined with some care that part of the book which treats of partial payments, a subject in regard to which the statutes of different States, the rules adopted by different courts, and the practice of different merchants and bankers present great and often important variations. The different rules for adjusting such payments are given by Professor Watson, and he then explains what he considers the correct and just rule. On comparing his results with those arrived at by an entirely independent process, believed to be just and correct, we find an exact agreement. Every possible precaution appears to have been taken to secure mathematical and typographical accuracy.

Another volume of the series of mathematical text-books by Prof. Newcomb has been published by Henry Holt & Co. It comprises a treatise of plane and spherical trigonometry, and the logarithmic tables usually accompanying such works. The treatise and tables are also published in separate volumes, and are for sale independently of each other. The treatise is formed upon the same plan and possesses the same general characteristics as the previous volumes of the course. In the present volume, however, the author appears to have kept the practical applications of the science more especially in view. The tables are "five-place tables," and are printed with great clearness and even beauty.

So far as such a subject can be taught by questions and answers, the 'School Manual of Household Economy,' published under the direction of the Kitchen-Garden Association of this city (Iverson, Blakeman, Taylor & Co.), ought to accomplish its purpose. Housework, or house-keeping, like every other art, can be effectually learned only by actual practice; but the future servant or mistress will surely profit by the study of the clear, concise statements of this

treatise. It is all the better for its simplicity, being without hobbies, or even theories, except the beautiful one, of the character of the virtuous woman, which makes the device of the title-page—"She looketh well to the ways of her household."

From Christian Tönsberg, Norway's enterprising art publisher, we have received a small volume containing 160 wood-engravings of Norwegian cities, landscapes, waterfalls, etc., with 127 pages of text in Norse and in English. The illustrations are from photographs and drawings taken on the spot. The English title of the book is 'Norway, exhibited in engravings, with a brief description by various authors.' It will be found a convenient pocket-guide for people who contemplate spending a vacation in Scandinavia.

—In these days, when all of our academies, colleges, and libraries, supported wholly or in part by the income of invested funds, are suffering from the diminished rate of interest, it may be well for them to lay to heart the optimistic view taken by the Peabody Institute, of Peabody, Mass. Its income has fallen off nearly \$1,500, but it declares that "this misfortune is not without its compensations. . . . The youth or adult who masters one good book has reaped more benefit, and made more real progress, than the one who has acquired but a superficial knowledge of a score of volumes"; ergo, the smaller a library's income, and the fewer new books it is able to buy, the better for its readers. The "Thirtieth Annual Report" does not draw this conclusion in so many words, but it is difficult to see what other compensation there can be. The next alderman who is trying to cut down the City Library appropriation, will find this a convenient argument.

—Pending the delay in the publication of the annual report of the Director of the United States Geological Survey, Mr. S. F. Emmons, geologist in charge of the Rocky Mountain Division, has issued, in a separate pamphlet, his contribution to Director Powell's volume, consisting of an abstract or outline of a more detailed report, to be presented later, upon the geology and mining industry of the Leadville region. The abstract makes a pamphlet of about ninety large octavo pages, and is accompanied by two colored plates, representing the geology of the vicinity of Leadville in a map and sections. Among the many interesting results of Mr. Emmons's investigations, some of the most noteworthy, from an economical point of view, are those that relate to the geological position of the ore bodies of the district, the more important of which occur as a replacement of the blue limestone at or near its contact with an overlying white porphyry. The limestone is shown to be of Carboniferous age, with an average thickness of only 150 to 200 feet and the composition of a normal dolomite. In places the dolomite has been so largely replaced that it is now mainly represented by a mass of ore, ferruginous clay, quartz, and chert. The overlying porphyry is regarded as the immediate source from which the vein materials were probably derived, chemical examinations having shown that while the sedimentary and crystalline rocks of the region, taken at some distance from the ore deposits, contain no precious metals, appreciable amounts of gold, silver, lead, and baryta may generally be found in the eruptive rocks. The details of these examinations must be reserved for the final publication; but an idea of the amount of material available in these rocks may be obtained from an estimate of the possible contents of a single variety of porphyry (the pyritiferous) of the Leadville district, from which it appears—taking into the calculation the area of its outcrop, as shown on the map, its probable thick-

ness, and the average percentage of metals contained in it, as deduced from chemical examinations of eleven specimens from different parts—that the mass under consideration would contain, in round figures, 250,000,000 ounces of silver, 9,000,000 tons of galena, and 100,000,000 tons of limonite, which represents fairly the average proportions of each in Leadville ores as a whole.

—The main report, now in course of preparation, as outlined in the present pamphlet, will comprise, in part 1, a detailed description and discussion of the geological phenomena of the Mosquito Range in general, and of the Leadville region in particular; and in part 2, a study of the ore deposits of Leadville, their mineralogical and chemical composition and their probable origin, and a description of the methods of working the mines, metallurgical treatment of the ores, and the economical results. It is to be very liberally furnished with engraved book-plates and woodcuts for general illustration, and accompanied by an atlas of fourteen sheets, comprising geological maps and sections. The preliminary report now submitted gives such abundant evidence of careful and intelligent study of the subject by Mr. Emmons and his assistants that their final conclusions cannot fail to make a very important contribution of lasting value to the science of economical geology. The work as projected and so far developed embraces much that is deeply interesting not only to the student, but to the practical miner or mine-owner; and its successful execution will be a credit to its authors, and a practical demonstration of the usefulness of the Geological Bureau in its relations to one of the great industries of the country.

—M. Jules Claretie gathered into a volume the best of the *chroniques* which he had contributed during 1880 to the *Temps*, and the book sold into the seventh or eighth edition. So he has repeated the experiment this year, and 'La Vie à Paris—1881' (Paris: Havard; New York: F. W. Christern) is already in its fifth edition. It is a little difficult to define in English the exact function and nature of a *chronique* such as M. Claretie writes fortnightly or oftener in the *Temps*. In his hands it is a running commentary on the passing show of Parisian life, and its manner varies from that of the "Easy Chair" in *Harper's Magazine* to that of the better class of "Our Own Correspondent." He eschews politics, and considers society, art, literature, and the drama. Music, sport, and fashion are not neglected, but perhaps it is manners that M. Claretie dwells upon most skilfully and lovingly. An antiquary as well as a critic, an historian as well as a novelist, M. Claretie is plainly enough ever observant of the shifting customs of society. He has a quick eye and a pointed style; his acquaintance in the artistic and literary circles of France is most extensive. Thus the book abounds in bright pictures of Parisian life and in fresh and pertinent anecdotes. For example, the Electric Exhibition of last summer gave M. Claretie a chance to tell an apologue he had once heard Victor Hugo extemporize—an apologue which shows Voltaire frightened by the simple marvels of modern science and which is not at all unlike Poe's 'Thousand and Second Night.' The annual picture-show brings up the subject of artists' models; and M. Claretie gives us a curious sketch of this singular class, of the odd lives they lead, and of the pride they take in the pictures for which they have posed. It is amusing to learn that the model who is in the habit of posing for historical painters, scorns to sit for a *genre* picture, and that the woman who has often been painted as a fine lady refuses to pose as a peasant. Another interesting chapter is on the many dining clubs of Paris—clubs

which have no club-house and indeed no existence except during the monthly or fortnightly dinner. Not to be passed over hastily are the chapters on Parisian journalism and on actresses' mothers. It only remains to be added that there is a classified table of contents, besides an index of the many proper names scattered through the book. It is M. Claretie's intention to continue this series of annual volumes; and its future value, like its present interest, is indisputable.

—The late Édouard Fournier must have been one of the most indefatigable note-takers ever known. The 'Bibliothèque de l'Arsenal' has twenty quarto volumes, which have been carefully arranged by M. Paul Lacroix; the 'Bibliothèque de la Ville' has fifteen more volumes, relating to the history of Paris, which have been arranged by M. Jules Cousin; and a large mass on the history of the *chanson populaire* in all countries and ages, which was to have been used by the late Baron James de Rothschild, will now probably be deposited in some other library. Besides all these, there is another collection relating to the history of signs, which is to go into the 'Bibliothèque de l'Arsenal' as soon as M. Fourmaier's posthumous work on signs is published. With all this apparatus it is remarkable that he should have published so much as he did. His 'Esprit dans l'Histoire,' 'Vieux Neuf,' 'Histoire des Hôtelleries et des Cabarets' (in conjunction with Francisque Michel), and more than a dozen other antiquarian works; his ten plays, in which, however, he was usually only joint author; his collections, such as the nine volumes of 'Variétés Historiques et Littéraires,' and the 'Théâtre Français avant la Renaissance,' and 'Théâtre Français au 16e et 17e Siècles'; his editions of the works of Regnard and of Beaumarchais, and an endless number of *notices*, *préfaces*, and articles in journals—all these constitute a literary performance of which, considering its general excellence, an antiquary of any nation might be proud. We doubt if even his friend Paul Lacroix ("le Bibliophile Jacob") has surpassed him in diligence.

—The University of Berlin is going a-begging for a professor of philosophy. A few years ago Professor Harms died, and after considerable negotiating Professor Lotze accepted the place. He, too, died before he had occupied his chair more than a year, and all the efforts made since to obtain Professor Kuno Fischer, of Heidelberg, Professor von Goltz, Professor Sigwart, and others have failed. The position is one of the most honorable and remunerative in the country, and the phenomenon is therefore somewhat peculiar. There are plenty of younger psychologists in Germany, but they are all modern in spirit and convictions, while Berlin is conservative, and still observes the custom, noted by Heine in his day, of keeping all new ideas in quarantine for some years or decades.

—A collection of twenty-five new cartoons by Albert Henschel has just been issued by F. A. C. Prestel of Frankfurt. They are in his old, well-known manner, representing incidents of every-day life with a few simple but suggestive lines, in which the humor is always tempered by a certain grace and naïveté. In a late number of the *Frankfurter Zeitung* Johannes Proelsz gives some facts concerning Henschel that will be of interest to his admirers in this country. His father had originally intended him for the career of a naturalist, but on seeing a very clever caricature of one of his teachers made by his twelve-year-old son, he allowed him to follow the bent of his own mind. In 1872 he had already reached the age of thirty-eight years without

having taken any steps toward notoriety, outside of a limited circle of friends. About this time the art-dealer Prestel secured twenty-five of his sketches and printed them in an edition of a hundred copies. Most of these were sold in Frankfurt, but one copy was exhibited at the Leipzig Kunstverein, where it made a great sensation. Another copy got into the hands of Bismarck, who immediately wrote to the editor of the weekly *Gartenlaube* and called his attention to the new talent. As the *Gartenlaube* at that time had a circulation of almost half a million copies, an article on Henschel which soon appeared in it at once helped him to a popularity which has been constantly on the increase, more than a million copies of his sketches having already been disposed of by his publisher. "Mischief and gracefulness" are the leading traits of Henschel's *genre* pictures. He occupies an intermediate position between those painters who, like Richter, Pletsch, and Klimsch, idealize the scenes from life which they choose for subjects, and the caricaturists of the *Fliegende Blätter* and *Schalk*—Busch, Oberländer, and others—whose principal aim is to excite laughter by exaggerating the awkward and comic, whereas Henschel aims at fun which does not clash with the lines of beauty. "The form which he adopts in his most characteristic sketches as most suitable is peculiar to himself. He places the clumsy directly beside the graceful, the awkward beside the clever; and the artistic contrast resulting from this method gives a purer form of humor than the exaggeration of the awkward into ugliness."

—Mr. Grant Allen, in the June number of Cassell's *Magazine of Art*, has an article entitled "The Great Classical Fallacy," mainly devoted to the lamentable ignorance of the English architects of the eighteenth century regarding the antique architecture which they endeavored to imitate, especially in respect to its color. It is indeed true that Sir Christopher and his followers, Hawksmoor, Vanbrugh, the brothers Adam, Kent, Campbell, Chambers, and the rest, did create a distinctive English Renaissance, which was crude and formal, and, unlike their Italian and (to a certain extent) their French contemporaries, did not consider the painters their natural allies. Classical forms in their hands thus not only refused to stoop to the requirements of domestic comfort, but suffered an eclipse of color. In this latter respect, we venture to question whether the very affluence of archaeological discovery in these latter days has not so embarrassed the present generation of English architects that they are not much better off than their ancestors. Certain it is, no English writer has yet presented anything approaching a satisfactory theory of the relations of color to form; and, as for practice, the modern drawing-room, richly bedight with carpets, hangings, and wall-papers, decorated ceilings, and the spoils of the gorgeous East, is by no means a completed architectural interior in the sense that the royal chambers recently disinterred upon the Palatine or in the gardens of the Tiburine villas are complete; our public halls do not yet recall the splendors of the secular basilicas or curias of the Empire; nor do our churches borrow either from the paintings and marble inlays of the pagan temples, or from the Christian mosaics of Byzantium, Ravenna, or Venice, any hint of beautiful completion. Our conscience is aroused, but our civilization is at fault, and we have not yet married color to form in perfect union, or defined the true relations of color to architectural effects. Mr. Grant Allen utters a commonplace fact when he states that the classical scholarship and art of the last century went hand in hand, and suf-

fered from certain obvious limitations of knowledge; he might have added that our own shortcomings differ only from those of our ancestors in degree. It is quite true that not only his imaginary villa of Charlecomb, but all the great monuments of the time—Blenheim, Wanstead House, Castle Howard, Holkam House, and the rest—are for the most part cold and colorless; that they but dimly apprehended the classical idea which they were intended to revive; that they sacrificed comfort to an architectural formula, and ease to monumental effect; but, with all their defects, they are at least deserving of respect as genuine historical expressions. Apparently, the day is not far distant when the incomprehensible revolution of taste and fashion through which, by way of the "Queen Anne" aberrations, we are at present passing, will culminate in a revival of respect for classical symmetry—better instructed and more conscientious, perhaps, than that of the last century, but none the less diametrically opposed to the license and medieval picturesqueness which have lately controlled most of our architectural expressions. Then we shall have another conflict of essays on the true principles of architectural aesthetics; and what prophet shall say when and where we shall finally rest from these unscientific and empirical processes, and enjoy an era of rational peace with art?

—One of the most curious and interesting incidents of the religious history of the Middle Ages is the conversion of a "master of Holy Scripture"—a distinguished preacher—by a "friend of God from the Oberland," apparently at Strassburg, about the middle of the fourteenth century. The "master" has generally been identified with the famous Dominican preacher and mystic, Tauler; the "friend of God," with one Nicholas of Basel. In 1879 an eminent Dominican scholar, Denifle, published a treatise entitled 'Tauler's Bekehrung,' in which he undertook to show that Tauler could not be the hero of the story, and that it was probably a fictitious narrative, drawn up with a view to edification—a *Tendenzschrift*. The same year, Dr. Auguste Jundt published in Paris a volume of 445 octavo pages entitled 'Les Amis de Dieu au quatorzième Siècle,' containing a detailed account of the career of "the friend of God of the Oberland" and his associate, Rulman Merswin of Strassburg, with a critical examination of the evidence as to the identity of both "master" and "friend of God." His book was in print before the appearance of Denifle's; nevertheless, he was able to add an appendix of twenty-five pages, in which he considers and answers his arguments. A part of Denifle's case is disposed of by the fact that M. Jundt does not identify the "friend of God" with Nicholas of Basel, but, by an ingenious combination of bits of evidence, comes to the conclusion that he resided in Coire (Chur) in the Grisons, and that his name was John—probably John of Rutberg. That the "master of Holy Scripture" was Tauler, he appears to have proved conclusively in the body of the book, and in the appendix he successfully answers, or at least weakens, all of Denifle's arguments. The strongest of these is that Tauler was not a "magister," but only a "lector"—and we know how strict the scholars of the Middle Ages were in their use of the titles of the several grades of scholarship. But the "friend of God," Jundt answers, was not a scholar, but an uninstructed layman, who might easily give the title "master" to a preacher of Tauler's eminence—just as every distinguished preacher at the present day is "Doctor" in common parlance. Another argument of great strength is that the "master" was not positively identified with Tauler until the year 1486, although the treatise which de-

scribes the occurrence was published fifty years earlier; the occurrence itself is usually placed in 1348, but by Jundt in 1350—Tauler died in 1361. In reply to this argument, Jundt shows that even the first edition of the treatise (1436) was associated with Tauler by being placed in a collection of his sermons, and being ascribed to a master of the order of St. Dominic. The first use of the term "master of Holy Scripture" for Tauler was in 1468; the first direct assertion that he was the person referred to by the "friend of God," in 1486; and these three dates show a concurrence of tradition which is certainly very strong. On the whole, Denifle's arguments that the "master" could not have been Tauler seem to us successfully answered; that it certainly was he, cannot be claimed, but is at any rate made probable. Jundt's book will be found very instructive for the religious life of the Middle Ages.

—On very few occasions during the past season—even during the "Africaine" excitement—has the Academy of Music been so crowded as it was on Friday evening. Many who had heard Frau Materna at the May Festival concerts came to bid her good-by, or rather *au revoir*, and others came to hear for the first time the "heroine of the three May Festivals." The concert opened with the overture to Weber's "Euryanthe," which was rather poorly played; the most beautiful passage in it—the weird *picnissimo* tomb motive—being, moreover, spoiled by the noise made by the late-comers. In this piece, as well as in the "Rienzi" and "Tannhäuser" overtures, which the orchestra played alone, it became only too apparent that Wagnerian music cannot be effectively rendered with so small a band in so large a hall, in which, too, no one could help contrasting the effect with that produced at the Philharmonic concerts. Some piano solos contributed by Mme. Constance Howard must have convinced every one that the Academy is no place for that instrument, and that the performer would have made a more favorable impression under more auspicious circumstances. The burden of the concert accordingly lay chiefly on the shoulders of Frau Materna and Herr Candidus, the magnitude of whose merits may be estimated from the fact that they succeeded in making of the concert one of the most interesting of the season. Herr Candidus sang an aria from the "Huguenots," and Siegmund's love-song from "Die Walküre," besides assisting Frau Materna in the duo from the second act of "Tannhäuser," which closed the concert. His beautiful, manly voice and excellent method won him new admirers, and we are sure we express a general hope that some manager may restore this fine tenor to his native country. He always sings his part as it was written, and that alone would distinguish him favorably from some other tenors known to local fame. Frau Materna's contributions were three in number—the aria "Adrian," from "Rienzi," a song, "Meine Boten," by W. Goericke, of Vienna, and the part of Elizabeth in the Tannhäuser selection, already referred to. Like Herr Candidus, she was compelled to repeat each of her solo pieces, although there was in them not a trace of such ornamental or florid vocalism as alone would have evoked demonstrations of enthusiasm from a less intelligent audience. The truth of what we said of her voice on a previous occasion—that it is "of great compass, sonorous quality, absolute purity, great flexibility, unequalled power, amazing endurance, and great emotional range and intensity"—was fully demonstrated on this occasion to the satisfaction even of those who had heretofore been sceptical as to one or other of these points. No living singer that we have ever heard has a

voice that so completely contains in itself the whole gamut of human passions, and that conveys to the hearer in such a thrilling manner every variation of emotion contained in the situation she is interpreting. We even maintain that in loud, sustained high notes her voice has a purely sensuous beauty that transcends anything that even the purely sensuous Italian school of vocalism can boast of. In the athletics of vocalism—in feats of agility, trills, etc.—she has many superiors, but in the aesthetics she has no equal. And this is the result of the Wagnerian, declamatory style, which we are always told prematurely ruins every voice.

—Frau Materna has every reason to be satisfied with her reception in this country. She has received high praise from every quarter except a few *Italianissimi* and one remarkable "critic," who has made the epoch-making discovery that she is defective in that for which Wagner and all German critics have always especially admired her—her distinct and clear pronunciation of the German language. And this success is much more remarkable when we bear in mind that she is by instinct as great an actress as she is a singer, and that the audience lost just as much in seeing her on the concert stage as they do in hearing Wagner's music out of its proper connections. In Vienna this is so clearly understood that we have known her to appear in connection with other opera singers at a concert which did not fill half the house, while the house is always full when she sings at the Opera. One more point must here be insisted on. It was noticeable, and we mentioned it at the time, that Frau Materna in some passages sang slightly out of tune at the May Festival concerts. We ascribed this to the high American pitch, to which she was not then accustomed; and the result has shown the correctness of our view. A few weeks have sufficed to adapt her voice to our pitch, and on Friday it deserved the epithet of absolute purity as much as the others enumerated above. But to prevent other singers from being similarly misjudged it is surely time that this old nuisance of the American pitch were abated. It arose from the desire of piano manufacturers to give their instruments especial brilliancy by an abnormally high pitch. This is unjust to the singers, and we believe that music is now sufficiently advanced in America to beat last emancipated from the patronage of piano manufacturers. In saying this we do not mean to deny the good service done to the cause of music heretofore by some of our leading manufacturers.

STATE TRIALS OF THE NINETEENTH CENTURY.

Narratives of State Trials in the Nineteenth Century. By G. Lathom Browne, Barrister-at-Law. 2 vols. London: Sampson Low & Co.; Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.

MR. LATHOM BROWNE has published a worthless book which is yet well worth reading. He is himself, to judge from his work, a professional bookmaker, and his bookmaking is not of a high quality. His historical summaries, which fill up a large part of his two volumes, are the most pretentious narratives of facts known to all the world which it has ever been our fate to read. His accounts of the trials with which he is specially concerned are neither clear nor interesting. His opinions upon men and things are commonplace, superficial, and utterly deficient in insight. Whoever wishes to understand how a strange and exciting tale of mystery may be spoiled by bad telling, should read Mr. Browne's account of the frauds which wrecked the reputation of Lord Cochrane. It is difficult, from Mr. Browne's version of the affair, to follow out the

leading incidents of a complicated transaction. It is even more difficult to form from his narrative any clear judgment as to the parts played by the different actors in one of the most painful judicial investigations of modern times. Mr. Browne has never understood the whole of the difficulties involved in the supposition of Lord Cochrane's innocence. He sees that Lord Ellenborough was a violent partisan, and was not an impartial judge in a case where political feeling prejudiced him against the prisoner. But he never perceives that Lord Ellenborough's unfairness or severity does not prove Lord Cochrane's innocence. Every one must wish to believe that a seaman who displayed all the boldness and much of the genius of Nelson was not mixed up in frauds which would have disgraced the blacklegs of the Stock Exchange; and any candid critic will gladly admit that Lord Cochrane's general career affords a considerable presumption against his having participated in a disgraceful imposture, likely, had it succeeded, to bring ruin on many innocent persons. But when every consideration in favor of Lord Cochrane is duly weighed, the fact still remains that the circumstances of suspicion against him were very strong, and have never been satisfactorily cleared up. It would probably have been well had the jury given him the benefit of every doubt, and found him not guilty. But ordinary justice to the judge who tried, and to the jurymen who convicted, Lord Cochrane requires the admission that in his case a verdict of not guilty could not morally have differed from a verdict of not proven. That Mr. Browne does not see this, gives us the full measure of his capacity for sifting evidence.

The persons, again, about whom he writes are for the most part men and women whose fame or infamy has by this time become almost forgotten, and, what is more, hardly deserves to be remembered. Who is there at this time of day who knows anything about Alexander Davison and Valentine Jones, about Dr. Troy or Mr. Drakard; Brandreth, Turner, Ludlam, and the other Nottingham rioters; Thistlewood, of the Cato conspiracy? Sir Charles Wolseley, Harrison, and Bamford are names which can raise few recollections in England, and are utterly unknown beyond the limits of that country. Who is there, we wonder, who could tell us what were the views or what (if any) the policy advocated by the "patriarch" Cartwright or "orator" Hunt? Is there any among our readers so well informed as to be able to say what was the history or fate of the Spence who founded "certain societies or clubs calling themselves Spenceans, or Spencean philanthropists," which did in 1817, if we are to believe the language of 57 Geo. III. cap. 19, "hold and profess for their object the confiscation and division of the land and the extinction of the funded property of the kingdom"? Who, in short, learns, knows, or recollects anything about the Reformers, Radicals, or Revolutionists who, during the earlier part of this century, excited the terror—well or ill-founded—of all the respectable classes throughout Great Britain? Whatever were the merits or the demerits of the men who agitated or conspired against the Government of George III. or of George IV., they were utterly deficient in that kind of individuality or genius which makes a permanent impression on the memory of mankind.

Some, indeed, of Mr. Browne's state trials have no reference to treason or conspiracy. But the fashionable blackguardism of fifty or sixty years ago was at least as dreary and characterless as its sedition. A man must have a strange taste for the details of low intrigue who can feel much interest in the miserable contest between George IV. and his Queen. The "delicate in-

vestigation," the Milan inquiry, the Bill of Pains and Penalties, and the like, are matters which it is impossible for any one concerned in the history of the century wholly to overlook: they throw a curious light on the state, not of England, but of the English court, when George IV. was King. But in themselves they are matters neither more important nor better worth recollection than the daily records of the police court. Great qualities are needed for the making even of a great villain, and the scoundrels who during the first quarter or so of this century found in the English law courts a stage on which to exhibit their vices had not capacity or originality enough to give them a high rank among notorious rogues. The Duke of York and Mary Ann Clarke, the Earl of Berkeley and Miss Tudor, George IV. and Queen Caroline, have one and all of them the unmistakable note of commonplace vulgarity. For invention, for resource, for humor, they cannot compare for a moment with the Claimant. As the world goes on, even crime and black-guardism, there is reason to hope, improve in quality. In the field of roguery, no less than in that of politics, Mr. Browne is forced to deal with the adventures of persons who, if we except Lord Cochrane, all lacked any touch of greatness or genius.

An ill-written book, the work of an incompetent narrator, which tells for the most part dull stories about dull persons, may, in the strictest sense of the word, be called worthless. Yet, for all this, we have no hesitation in asserting that Mr. Browne's book is worth reading, and, what is more, is worth reading with some thought and attention. The narratives of state trials are worth reading, because they bring into a clear light several aspects of recent English history which are constantly overlooked, and yet are in their way of supreme importance. No one, for example, who reads Mr. Browne's pages with any intelligence, can doubt that the standard of public morality in England has risen immensely since the beginning of the century. The statesmen, the politicians, and officials of to-day have faults of their own enough and to spare. The men of the Gladstonian era may lack the nerve, the force, and the character to maintain the empire which was defended and preserved by the generation that idolized Pitt, remembered the greatness of Chatam, and produced Peel and Wellington; but no one can doubt that the Ministers, the Secretaries, the Under-Secretaries, and the administrators generally who have held office for the last fifty years have been, as a body, incomparably more honest than the officials who flourished eighty years ago. Pitt's public honesty was, it is true, proverbial; but when a particular Minister is praised because he does not plunder the country, we may be pretty sure that the mass of officials are accustomed to dip their hands freely enough into the national Treasury. The records of the law courts are in such a matter worth a hundred general statements. Lord Melville may have been in reality, as well as technically, innocent of every offence laid to his charge. The Duke of York may possibly have been so complete a fool that he ought not to be considered a thorough-paced knave. But we may be sure that when Melville was Treasurer of the Navy, and the Duke Commander-in-Chief, favoritism and corruption must have been rampant throughout the public departments over which the Viscount and the Duke presided. It is hard, further, to believe that men like Alexander Davison and Valentine Jones were not to be found in other departments than the commissariat. The trials which laid open to the nation some, at least, of the secrets of official corruption and official incompetence took place between 1806 and 1809, just at the moment, that is, when England was engaged in her life-

and-death struggle with Napoleon. It is difficult at first sight to reconcile the external with the internal view of English political life. As we read of sieges, of battles, of victories, of patriotic exertions for the defence of the country, we picture to ourselves an age of heroes. As we read of frauds on the commissariat, of corrupt sales of commissions, we fancy that the age was one in which rogues in high places were rapidly bringing the whole country to the brink of ruin. The apparent contradiction can be reconciled only by admitting that an age of national glory need not be an age of high public morality. The regiments which fought and conquered in the Peninsula were, it is said, recruited from the jails and the hulks. The royal Commander-in-Chief who distributed promotion in accordance with the suggestions of Mary Ann Clarke, might well, under slightly different circumstances, have been sent to stand his trial at the Old Bailey. It is surely one of the strangest strokes of the irony of history that scoundrelism and incompetence should have flourished at the very period which future historians will paint, and paint with truth, as the age at which the glory of England reached its highest point.

The history of nations is never in reality a mere exhibition of the sarcasms of Providence. There is, if any one considers the matter fairly, a true connection between the public corruption at home and the national glories abroad which mark the first twenty years of the century. England was not corrupt. The tone of political life had risen for at least a century, and was every day rising. But a time of war is almost of necessity a time of corruption: the absence of reform means the growth of abuses. Moreover, the administrative machinery of English government needed complete supervision and rearrangement; and at the very moment when it required repair, it had to bear a greater stress of work than has ever been laid upon it before or since. The wonder is not that many officials should have been corrupt and incompetent, but that there should have been found among the governing classes enough men of honesty and vigor to carry the country with success through the crisis of her fortunes. The ship needed repair, but the energy of the crew and officers brought her safe into port.

But let no optimist suppose that England did not suffer from the patent vices of her institutions. The plain and undoubted fact is, that for the first thirty or forty years of the nineteenth century the people of England were in a more or less constant state of suffering and discontent. The trials of the Luddites in 1813, the trials for high treason of 1817, the Peterloo massacre of 1819, the Cato conspiracy of 1820, the passionate excitement caused by the proceedings against Queen Caroline, the whole history of men like Despard, Watson, Hunt, Brandreth, and a score of others—tell a tale of popular misery and of popular discontent the meaning of which is unmistakable. The men whose names we have mentioned were, it will be said, conspirators or agitators of a mean and despicable type. Despard was, indeed, a soldier of some ability, and Hunt a speaker of some power; but no doubt the democratic leaders or conspirators whose plots from the beginning of the century alarmed the Cabinets of George III. and of the Regent, were for the most part persons of little ability or character. Not one of them rose intellectually to the level of Wilkes, Horne Tooke, or Thomas Paine. It would be ridiculous to compare any of them with agitators of the mould of O'Connell, of Cobden, of John Bright, or even of Feargus O'Connor or Ernest Jones. Their schemes were wild and incoherent, their means of accomplishing their plans laughably inadequate for their object. The Cato Street conspiracy

had about it an element of horror; but that any man should have thought he could work a revolution by assassinating the whole of the Cabinet, would, but for one circumstance, argue at least as much insanity as wickedness. The one circumstance which makes it possible to believe that conspirators such as Thistlewood, Watson, or Brandreth were not madmen, is their knowledge of widespread discontent and suffering among the masses of the people. In this point of view, the popular leaders with whom we are concerned gain a certain historical importance from their individual insignificance. When the acts of Hunt, of Watson, or of Brandreth could seriously alarm the English Government, there was, we may feel sure, something very critical in the state of the nation.

A good deal of allowance must be made for the panic caused among the well-to-do classes by the recollections of the French Revolution. Still, the Ministers of the Regent were not fools or cowards. They undoubtedly committed the mistake of supposing that spies, informers, special commissions, suspensions of the habeas-corpus act, and the like, could cure a disease of which such measures can only suppress the outward signs. But it is folly to suppose that Perceval, Lord Sidmouth, Lord Eldon, and the Tory statesmen generally were mistaken in thinking that a spirit of disloyalty and sedition was threatening the institutions of the country. Respectable Radicals like Bamford, ruined adventurers like Despard, and fanatics like Brandreth, were on this point quite at one with prime ministers and privy councillors. Every man who really knew the state of the country between 1800 and 1830 was well aware that a revolutionary spirit was abroad. The growth of pauperism, the severity of taxation, the disturbance in social arrangements caused by the rapid growth of manufactures, the absence of all attempt to reform institutions which had long been unsuited to the changed conditions of the country, were, it is perfectly plain, during the first quarter of this century creating that condition of popular sentiment which every one now knows to be the certain sign of approaching revolution. Whoever wishes to realize how near England came to being swept into the general revolutionary movement of the age, will find an infinite amount of instruction in the careful study of the book before us.

RECENT NOVELS.

The Revolt of Man. [Leisure-Hour Series.] Henry Holt & Co. 1882.

Heaps of Money. A Novel. By W. E. Norris. New York. 1882.

The Eleventh Commandment. A Romance. By Anton Giulio Barrili. From the Italian, by Clara Bell. New York: William S. Gottsberger.

Dorothea. [Round-Robin Series.] Boston: Jas. R. Osgood & Co.

Why Frau Frohmann Raised Her Prices. By Anthony Trollope. Harper & Bros. [Franklin Square Library.]

A Reverend Idol. Boston: James R. Osgood & Co.

An Echo of Passion. By George P. Lathrop. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.

Rocky Fork. By Mary Hartwell Catherwood. Boston: D. Lothrop & Co.

The Rival Heirs. By the Rev. A. D. Crane, B.A. New York: E. & J. B. Young & Co.

L'Abbé Constantin. Par Ludovic Halévy. Paris: Calmann Lévy; New York: F. W. Christern.

From Hand to Hand. From the German of Golo Raimund, by Mrs. A. L. Wister. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott & Co.

Lottie of the Mill. From the German of W. Heimbürg, by Katharine S. Dickey. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott & Co.

Castle and Town. By Frances Mary Peard. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott & Co.

IF satire to be successful needed only to be elaborate, 'The Revolt of Man' would be one of the greatest successes in the way of satirical writing since the days of Swift. It is directed against the woman's-rights agitation, and, like most satires of the kind, endeavors to turn the cause into ridicule by a picture of some of its probable remote consequences. In this case we are introduced to the England of the future—a country in which women are not merely entirely emancipated from man's yoke, but make laws for and govern him. The Great Transition and the Transfer of Power have been brought about. Women have been gradually substituted for men in the affairs of state; the monarchy has been abolished—a pure theocracy, with the Perfect Woman for its ideal head, has taken its place; man's rough and rude strength has been disciplined into obedience. Parliamentary government still exists, but it is in feminine hands. A ministry known as All the Talents is succeeded by one known as All the Beauties. But in the House of Peersesses a wide latitude of debate is permitted: one peeress taunts another with her youth, or with an alleged lover, or with trying to be thought prettier than she actually is, etc., etc. At the opening of the book, the ministry gets into trouble by asking for a commission of inquiry into the general condition of the men of the country. The Home Secretary, Constance, Countess of Carlyon, gives the following account of her position in the matter:

"I showed that the whole of the educational endowments of this country have been seized upon for the advantage of women; I suggested that a small proportion might be diverted for the assistance of men. Married men with property, I showed, have no protection from the prodigality of their wives. I pointed out that the law of evidence, as regards violence toward wives, presses heavily on the man. I showed that single men's wages are barely sufficient to purchase necessary clothing. I complained of the long hours during which men have to toil in solitude or in silence; of the many cases in which they have to do house-work and attend to the babies, as well as do their long day's work. And I ventured to hint at the onerous nature of the Married Mothers' Tax—that five per cent. on all men's earnings."

This shows the general drift of the satire, which is certainly harmless, if commonplace. In the course of time, the seeds of revolt are sown; man rises and throws off his yoke, and re-establishes his old supremacy. This being done, the subjection of woman is once more an accomplished fact, and the old order is restored. The plot of the novel, in which there is a sufficient amount of love and adventure to carry the reader through the satire, alone makes the latter readable.

Mr. Norris became very well known to the novel-reading public last summer by his 'Matrimony,' and to a less extent by 'Mademoiselle de Mersac.' 'Heaps of Money' must have been one of his earliest, if not his very first attempt at fiction; and in a slight way a very charming attempt it is. We will not spoil the reader's pleasure by giving him any analysis of the plot, which concerns the adventures of a very interesting young woman who not only desires, but obtains, "heaps of money." The scene is laid in part on the Continent, and among the incidents is a very cleverly-managed affair of honor, in the narration of which Mr. Norris displays the same familiarity and sympathy with

the weakness and pettiness of human nature which are the source of so much of the attraction of 'Matrimony.' Perhaps we ought to say, knowledge of human nature as a whole; but while he undoubtedly understands its good as well as its bad sides, it is over the latter that in his later book he lingers most lovingly. On the other hand, to most readers of 'Matrimony' the author is merely an accomplished cynic; but any one of them who will take the pains to look into 'Heaps of Money' will see that the cynicism of the later story is founded upon a matured observation and reflection—that deep and growing insight into the selfishness of man which time and experience so often produce in the candid writer of fiction. When he wrote 'Heaps of Money' he had observed and reflected less; hence, as a love-story, the earlier is the better of the two. As novels, their positions have to be reversed.

A translation from the Italian is so unusual that the mere announcement attracts attention. The publishers have been specially fortunate in their choice of 'The Eleventh Commandment.' It is a gay, sparkling little comedy. The first act passes amid the petty strivings and plottings of a little old Italian town, with its sub-prefect and its registrar-general. Enter a grand personage, a duke, who is seeking a richly-dowered bride. Act ii.: Up in the mountains, above the town, in an old monastery, is gathered a party of nine gentlemen who have voluntarily bound themselves together as the "Reformed Order of Saint Brund." They devote themselves to archaeology and the publication of a scientific journal—"monks who are not monks, a craze worthy of an Ariosto," but the country people call it "the convent of madmen." To them enter a young novice with "round, fresh face like an archangel out for a holiday," with his uncle, likewise a novice, a portly, comfortable man of fifty. The young novice brings to the community an eleventh commandment: "Thou shalt stay among thy fellow-men, live their life, love and suffer as they do; for thou mayest not escape the common lot." Act iii. we leave to the reader to make out for himself. The book is so wholly without pretension, and so lightly told, that one pardons minor faults, and no more questions probabilities than one would in 'The Princess,' which, *mutatis mutandis*, it is not unlike.

The author of 'Dorothea' adopts the Philadelphia Exposition of 1876 for the setting of the story; and very pretty it is. The scenes are happily chosen and lightly, gracefully sketched, with an appreciative sense of the humor in many of them; but for plot and character the book amounts to nothing.

'Why Frau Frohmann Raised Her Prices' is the first and most entertaining of three short stories in Mr. Trollope's best manner. It is a pleasant form of altruism to imagine upon how many piazzas it will be read aloud with delight this summer.

'A Reverend Idol' is but a lay figure, spite of the very strenuous attempt to make it like life. All clerical and manly virtues are heaped upon it, but all fail to produce reality. The heroine, however, is at moments a creature of true flesh and blood, and in those moments the author has actually succeeded in making her charming, not merely saying that she is so. Even in scenes which can be nothing but ridiculous, she is, let it be frankly admitted, adorable. But the want of sustained power, either in description or in portrayal of character, makes the book only a medley of incongruous elements. The heroine is by turns a young ingenue, a Daisy Miller, a Dorothea Brooks, or an Angelica Kauffmann. Any discrepancies or inconsistencies are of little concern to the author, who makes nothing of

the difficulties of putting high art, woman's sphere, the Cooking-School, and "Studies at Home" all into one story, besides the soul-perplexities of the clergyman and a proper amount of satire upon his feminine admirers. Left to themselves in a lonely farm-house on Cape Cod, what could these two do but fall in love? And a very pretty idyl it might have made but for the necessity for a plot. A most dreadful one it turns out to be, and the prudent reader will close the book when Mrs. Van Cortlandt, the superlatively handsome widow, enters "to play a Satanic game"; for the last that is seen of the heroine she is drowning herself, and the last that is heard of her the wedding-cards are just out, and there is not even the poor satisfaction of knowing how the reverend idol justified his foolish and cruel mistrust. Such a tale had best be left to the dime novelists, who at least understand their trade. The boldest would not venture such an impossibility as a young girl's going without detection from New York to New Orleans in man's attire, with wig, false moustache, and seven-shooter, besides the trifling addition of a young wife.

In profound and beautiful contrast is Mr. Lathrop's 'An Echo of Passion,' in which a woman who might have played this same wicked part resists temptation, though sorely tempted in herself, and becomes the higher and better conscience to the man who loves her, and who is loved by her, though both in spite of herself. The book would be more telling if it were written more simply and heartily. It is weakened by a kind of refining which produces not so much refinement as thinness.

'Rocky Fork,' a book with very attractive illustrations, tells the story of a few summer days in a little neighborhood of farmhouses of central Ohio long ago. The children are the central figures, but there is a due background of older people. Though the book has not the exquisite artistic finish which made the little 'Hector' the unique book of last winter, it has the same simplicity and sweet homeliness. Very rarely has plain, rough country life been so faithfully described. It seems usually impossible to do it without a tinge of vulgarity, which is just what true American country-life escapes. Some fine fibre in American nature, when close to fields and woods and sky, keeps it always noble, however rude the exterior. If there is a hint toward the end of the book, that refined manners are of their nature insincere, it is evidently a tribute to some supposed prejudice of the sort, not out of the writer's own conviction. Her people are all graciously attractive—the schoolmaster, with "sweet severe face under iron-gray hair"; Lisa, the guardian of the doctor's motherless children ("comely and important, she was a woman with a wholesome soul, and they all got on comfortably"); and the great-aunt from the far-off Sharon, to the children "a rose-leaf lady." "She inclined her cheek toward the bashful eager little face, and Bluebell felt as if she had kissed a white holly-hock's yielding petal." It is useless to try to transplant the children. They must be known in their own woods and meadows. Theirs was a blessed world of happy "make-believes" when simple pleasures yet had charms. One bit will give the delicate tone in which all this picture of primitive life is shaded. A child of nine is waiting at the bars for the cows:

"She had called them from the other side of the run, with long intonations: 'Su-kee! Pi-dey! Ro-see! Suu-kee!' Pidey's bell had tinkled accompaniment, recording their progress on the way. Now it dinged down the opposite hill with such a clamor that Bluebell could fancy the knock-kneed trot of both cows; and now it thumped as they plunged into the run; then it wandered along, pausing over some very sweet

bunch of grass, jerking at a mouthful of sweet-briar, and finally coming to the bars in perfect marching time: 'te-ding, te-ding, te-ding, a-ding, ding.' Bluebell had never heard an organ or an orchestra. She thought that cow-bell in the dim landscape, with echoes coming back from the hills, the most softening music in the world. The sound brought with it a smell of roses, of grass after rain, and clover."

'The Rival Heirs' were Saxon and Norman in the years between the battle of Hastings and the return from the first crusade. It is a tale for the elders in the school-room, and for the purity and smoothness of its style it may be commended to such of them as can stand the horror of the deeds of a brutal time. The bare outlines which the chronicles furnish have been filled in with details almost too real, some of them, in their cruelty. The author follows scrupulously the lead of such writers as Freeman, and perhaps it is his very painstaking which deprives his work of the fascination of books confessedly far less accurate. The great historical novel, like the law, *de minimis non curat*, while it shares with the legend that strange quality of being truer than the truth.

The firm of Henri Meilhac & Ludovic Halévy, makers of plays, has finally dissolved, and the junior partner has given up the stage. He intends to devote himself to prose fiction, believing that the time is at hand when the French novelist will be as well remunerated and as highly honored as the French dramatist. M. Halévy has long been known as a writer of sketches and short stories of astonishing point and humor. Gathered into three volumes—'Madame et Monsieur Cardinal,' 'Les Petites Cardinal,' and 'Un Mariage d'Amour'—they have already been sold to the extent of more than fifty thousand copies in all. M. Halévy's first novel had above twenty editions—a success remarkable enough anywhere, and doubly so in France, where a sale of five thousand has been known only at long intervals until very recently. All American readers of 'L'Abbé Constantin' will incline to believe that this success is well deserved, for it is due to the charming portraits of two American girls. M. Halévy has joined the group of the international novelists, and, although perhaps he never heard of Mr. Howells or of Mr. James, he is walking in their footsteps and working with their tools. One of the authors of that personification of feminine Parisianism, Froufrou, has now attempted to draw a cousin of Lydia Blood and Daisy Miller. Strange to say, the attempt is a complete success. Mrs. Scott and her sister, Miss Bettina Percival, are true Americans—and they are true ladies. It is perhaps a tribute to the purity of the American character that the story in which these ladies play the principal part is not only altogether delightful, but as innocent as it is interesting. The creator of Madame Cardinal has in 'L'Abbé Constantin' written the healthiest and most wholesome French novel since M. About's 'Roman d'un Brave Homme.'

The three books last on our list are all stories of Germany, though but two are translations. 'From Hand to Hand' begins, as a certain class of German novelists like to do, with the marriage of the hero and heroine. She is a child, and the scene is beside the death-bed of her father. The joys and griefs of three generations are inwoven in the plot, and all sorts of complications follow the marriage, under the malign influence of the widowed sister-in-law of the hero. The book tires, like music when some notes, though not exactly discordant or false, are too loud. 'Lottie of the Mill' is a fair example of another specific type of German novel. The impoverished nobleman seeks to restore the fallen fortune of his house by the marriage of his son to the daughter of the rich paper-maker.

Both these translations are well enough done to encourage the hope that we are at last coming to really good work in this difficult line. "Gems of culture," however, is a mixed metaphor that is neither good English nor good German. 'Castle and Town' elaborates the same theme, but in a finer strain. The two books are like the same melody arranged by different hands. The latter, within its modest limits, is singularly well sustained and harmonious. There is a Nuremberg episode, which, without delaying the action of the story, sets before the reader all the charm of that "quaint old town of art and song."

FISHER'S PHYSICS OF THE EARTH'S CRUST.

Physics of the Earth's Crust. By Rev. Osmond Fisher, M.A., F.G.S., etc. Macmillan & Co. 1881.

THE earth is certainly a hot body, which is slowly cooling and shrinking. This process has been going on since a time at which the surface was in a state of fusion, and there is no reason to suppose that it will not continue indefinitely. Most of the physical influences which have determined the character of past geological ages were dependent upon this general fact, and so too will be the future of the globe and of its inhabitants. It is conceivable that the earth may be solid throughout, or that it may be a melted globe surrounded by a solid shell, the "crust of the earth"; or that it may be solid at the surface and at the centre, with a fluid stratum between. For the correct reading of the past and the future, it is exceedingly important to know which of these suppositions is the true one; to which of these conditions we must ascribe the distribution of land and sea, the upheaval of mountain ranges, earthquakes, volcanoes, the score of complete changes in animal and vegetable life which have left their traces in the sedimentary rocks, and many other striking features in the history of the globe.

The problem of the condition of the earth's interior can be approached in two ways: we may inquire what subterranean conditions are compatible with the surface phenomena, or study the behavior of the globe to other bodies, especially to the moon and sun. As long as the latter method was neglected it was believed that only the supposition of a solid crust floating upon a melted globe could account for volcanoes and allied evidences of high temperatures, and of the presence of melted matter at considerable depths. Hopkins was the first to argue, some forty years ago, from astronomical grounds, that the earth showed a rigidity incompatible with an essentially fluid condition. Of late years Sir William Thomson has resumed the subject from a similar, but somewhat different, standpoint; and still more recently, Mr. G. H. Darwin has discussed it by ingenious methods of his own. The latter gentlemen have indeed shown that a portion of Hopkins's arguments were illusory, but they confirm one another fully in pronouncing the globe a rigid body still more emphatically than Hopkins. Were the interior of the earth fluid, but its crust three hundred miles thick, and made of continuous steel, the surface would still, according to Sir William Thomson, yield so freely to the deforming influence of sun and moon that it would carry the waters of the ocean up and down with it, and there would be no sensible tidal rise and fall of water relatively to land. The external layer or crust of the earth is therefore sensibly rigid. The phenomena of nutation, however, prove that the earth is not a rigid shell filled with liquid, nor is such a shell physically possible. The earth can, therefore, possess such a

rigidity as it exhibits only because it is solid from the surface downward to a depth so great that it cannot be regarded as a shell filled with liquid; or, in other words, the fluid interior, if there is one, must be an insignificant portion of the whole globe, and lie at a vast distance from the surface.

This seems a strange conclusion when it is considered that there are now hundreds of active volcanoes, and that the areas of land are few and small which do not show that great masses of eruptive rocks have poured over them in past ages. Then, too, as the thermometer rises one degree Fahrenheit for every fifty or sixty feet of depth below the surface of the earth, a temperature must be reached within a hundred miles at least equal to that of melted lava. But the pressure also increases with the distance from the surface, and the temperature necessary to fusion increases with the pressure; so that, as Hopkins pointed out, the interior of the earth may be solid in spite of being heated much above the point at which the same material would melt were the pressure no higher than at the surface. In spite of the imposing character of volcanic eruptions, they may be fed from accumulations of melted matter insignificant compared with the size of the earth; and it may be that lava, though intensely heated, only becomes liquid through some local and temporary relief of pressure. It is in virtue of an analogous relation that superheated water flashes into steam when a boiler bursts and the pressure is relieved. There are still other phenomena, such as the crumpling of strata attended by horizontal movement, which might be explained on the supposition of a fluid interior; but there are few phenomena in nature which, taken singly, are susceptible of but one explanation, and these are not of that character.

Geologists have been very reluctant to abandon the theory of a fluid interior, and the Rev. O. Fisher maintains that it is necessary to suppose the surface of the earth a crust floating on a liquid substratum. Hopkins, Scrope, Hunt, and others, have held similar views, with some modification. The thickness of the solid crust Mr. Fisher places at twenty to thirty miles; the depth of the substratum he does not state, but indicates on page 132 that it must be at least something like twenty miles. Mr. Fisher quotes Sir William Thomson's arguments as to the rigidity of the earth at some length; but he thinks that the tides in the fluid substratum "would not be of the nature of the tides contemplated by Sir William Thomson, as affecting the entire spheroid, but more nearly analogous to the ocean tides." Mr. Fisher thus allows that there must be tides of some sort in the substratum, and such tides must evidently be waves, following the moon like the oceanic tidal-wave. It would seem that the crust floating upon it must yield flexibly to such a subterranean tide, or else be fractured. Nothing that is known of the nature of the earth's crust indicates that it could yield flexibly to a stress of such short duration in any given direction as that due to the moon, and, if it did so, it is more than probable that evidences of the fluctuations of the crust would already have been perceived. None such, however, have ever been detected. If, on the other hand, the crust behaved as a brittle shell, the passage of the subterranean tide would be marked by phenomena similar to those observed in the great oceanic ice-sheets of the arctic regions. Fissures would form at short distances, and these fractures, and the minute dislocations which would accompany them and would recur at every tide, would keep every portion of the earth's surface in a nearly continuous tremor.

The retention of the supposed solid nucleus in its central position, too, as well as the behavior of the crust, requires explanation. None of

these points are discussed, or even mentioned, by Mr. Fisher, who, having presented Sir William Thomson's views, contents himself with showing that it is possible for solid lavas to float upon liquid ones, and that Hopkins regarded a fluid substratum as a physical possibility. He therefore draws the conclusion that a fluid substratum may now exist. In a later chapter he shows that certain phenomena of the upheaval of mountain ranges might be conveniently explained by the supposition of a fluid substratum, and this leads him to pronounce his hypothesis necessary as well as possible. This reasoning is in the highest degree unsatisfactory. Mr. Fisher appears to suppose that, by assuming the solid nucleus to reach within, say, forty miles of the surface, he satisfies the astronomical conditions. But this is far from being the case. The earth manifests its rigidity by the behavior of its surface, and, regarded from that surface, it is a rigid body. If any one were to maintain that the earth is fluid for a few miles from its centre, astronomers might have little to say against the hypothesis, though physicists would object. Just so the surface of a solid ball, say of steel, might behave toward external forces sensibly like that of a second similar ball with a small fluid cavity at its centre, but assuredly not like a body consisting of a thin envelope enclosing a fluid in which a large solid nucleus was held in suspension. This, however, appears to be Mr. Fisher's supposition; but to establish satisfactorily the existence of a fluid substratum, it would be necessary to show that Hopkins, Thomson, and Darwin are fundamentally in error in their arguments as to the action of tides and the conditions of nutation.

In order to obtain a "datum level" from which to measure the upheaval and subsidence of tracts of the earth's surface, Mr. Fisher resorts to a very ingenious expedient. He believes the surface of the earth to have been without elevations or depressions when the crust first solidified; and he argues further that, had the crust been perfectly compressible horizontally, it would have remained smooth during contraction. The position which the surface of such a crust would have occupied forms a very excellent and natural level from which to measure elevations and depressions. If the earth had been a solid body through geological time, this datum level must nearly correspond with the lowest depths of the ocean, and all variations from it must be elevations; while, if the crust rests on a fluid substratum, a portion of the present inequalities are to be regarded as depressions below the datum level. Taking probable values for the contraction of cooling rocks, Mr. Fisher shows that the amount of shrinking which could be supposed to have occurred if the earth were solid is greatly insufficient to account for the elevations which actually exist.

This ingenious argument, however, will scarcely bear examination; for, in spite of Mr. Fisher's assertion that no evidence can be adduced which is opposed to the supposition that the crust was without inequalities when it first solidified, such a supposition will appear to many in the highest degree unlikely. The earth is unquestionably a mass of heterogeneous materials of greatly differing densities. While the globe was still in a highly fluid state, an approximate separation into concentric layers, arranged according to their specific gravity, no doubt occurred; but as the temperature of solidification was approached, other physical properties of the constituents must have come into play. Some substances become viscid at much higher temperatures than others, and there is a great difference in the melting-points of various rocks. Layers of equal density must therefore have been far from uniform in their mobility. As long ago as

1879, Mr. G. H. Darwin showed ('Philosophical Transactions,' p. 589) that while the earth was still somewhat viscous and not perfectly homogeneous, the attraction of the moon must have induced wrinkles on its surface, of a form suggesting the present continental areas; and he strongly inclines to the opinion that the distribution of land and water, both on the earth and Mars, is attributable to this cause. Though the tops of the highest mountains are some ten miles above the lowest sea-bottoms, the elevations and depressions of the earth's surface bear, after all, a very small relation to the size of the globe—a relation which has been aptly illustrated by comparison with the slightly uneven surface of an orange. That variations of form of this order should have occurred on the surface of the globe at solidification, does not seem *a priori* improbable, even without regard to Mr. Darwin's argument, and observations have been made which tend to confirm such a view historically. The regions underlying continents are certainly less dense than those beneath the ocean, and there must have been a similar difference as long as oceans and continents have coexisted. There are also strong geological grounds for believing that continental areas have always been confined to the same regions of the globe as at present, and though this does not necessarily imply that the inequalities were pristine, it at least lends such a supposition considerable probability. In short, the hypothesis of an originally smooth globe requires stringent proof, while Mr. Fisher assumes it as self-evident.

Many topics of dynamical geology are discussed in 'Physics of the Earth's Crust,' for the most part by mathematical methods. Some of the discussions show great ingenuity, but the conclusions are all more or less affected by the exceedingly questionable assumptions of a fluid substratum and an originally smooth surface. Mathematical reasoning is, indeed, the most precise form of logic; but, in dealing with physical questions, the premises cannot be mathematically established, and unless the data of a physical argument can be so proved and tested, by observation or otherwise, that they may fairly be considered as demonstrated, mathematical reasoning from them is not only tediously elaborate, but altogether illusory.

The Naval War of 1812; or, The History of the United States Navy during the last war with Great Britain. By Theodore Roosevelt. G. P. Putnam's Sons.

THE War of 1812 was the golden age of naval fighting. In it "the art of handling and fighting the old broadside sailing-frigate in single conflict was brought" by our little Navy "to the highest point of perfection ever reached." The English nation had achieved a supremacy of the sea which has never been equalled before or since. The European wars had thrown a large part of the carrying trade of the world into American vessels, and built up a great mercantile marine. Such a marine is the best foundation for a naval one. In this case our Navy was fostered by the principal *casus belli*—the impression of Americans into the English Navy. The result was a contest between men of the same race—the most web-footed in the world—trained in the same school, in similar ships, with similar weapons, and under officers of similar experience and skill. The scenes presented were most dramatic, and singularly fitted to affect the imagination. They furnished some of its best material to the vigorous and vivid genius of Cooper, and will live longer in his novels than in his more serious narrative.

The difficulty of reconciling reports and fixing

figures relating to our last war takes away from our surprise at the same perplexities in events of seventy years ago. The passions smouldering since the Revolution then burst out afresh, and our brilliant and unexpected success made them more outspoken on both sides. One result seems to have been exaggerations and misstatements, sometimes honest and sometimes not, by both parties. In this mendacity the Americans must yield the palm. Their case is principally known from Cooper's history. His genius for romance was too famous for his statements to be received literally. The English account is mainly given by Brenton and James. To the latter Mr. Roosevelt addresses himself with a thoroughness of preparation and knowledge like that he praises in his naval heroes. While giving full credit to his ability and research, he proves him, in more than one instance, not only to have made false statements, but to have done so intentionally.

One prominent object of this book is the investigation and correction of such errors. A complete account of the naval events of the war is given, and their merits considered. The impartiality of the author's judgments and the thoroughness with which the evidence is sifted are remarkable and worthy of high praise. Log-books are consulted to show attention to drill; muster-rolls for numbers of combatants; contracts for descriptions of vessels; reports, and in their absence official letters of commanders, for evidence on disputed points; and the fullest use is made of original records to check collated published accounts. The descriptions of engagements are clear, sober, and in good taste, and from their matter often thrilling. The effect is never injured by fine writing, and there is no attempt at the personal element appropriate to participants or to the writers of fiction.

Great attention is paid to determining the relative force of combatants, and the methods generally must command assent. Some of the assumptions, however, would certainly seem violent if carried to extremes. The subject involves the consideration of numbers of crews and guns as well as the calibre and range of the latter. Some advantages, like speed and *ableness* in manœuvring of ships, discipline and courage of crews, skill and ability of officers, etc., hardly admit of being expressed in numbers. Some peculiarities may be of great value under some circumstances, and of none under others. The *Adams*, for instance, is said by tradition to have been fastest on one tack, and to have once owed her escape from pursuit to getting on this in the night. Some ships are relatively faster going free, and others on the wind. It is manifestly impossible to make a just allowance for every advantage. If it were possible, the rectified, computed result of every action would be a drawn game, with no superiority to either side. When so many considerations must be excluded it may be questioned whether it is desirable to attempt any comparison between the relative value of long and short-range guns of the same calibre. Such a relation may perhaps be satisfactory for a particular case, but no more admits of a general statement than the relative force of a blow and a pressure. If the vessel with the longer range can choose and keep her position, her antagonist can inflict no injury on her, and one gun is better than a thousand of shorter range. This was the case in the defence of the *Essex* against the *Phæbe*—the most desperate in the war. At short range the two classes of guns would be nearly equal. It is hardly satisfactory, therefore, to assume in any case, as Mr. Roosevelt does (though, it must be allowed, with cautious qualification), that one long-range gun is equivalent to two carronades. The assumption may help to illustrate a conclusion already reached, but it cannot add much to its

conviction. In the same way, and for much the same reason, the tacit assumption that the damage inflicted should bear some proportion to the force is fallacious. If the *Phæbe* had carried fewer guns, but their range had enabled her to keep entirely out of reach of the *Essex*, the damage she inflicted might conceivably have been no less. It might have been longer in inflicting.

These battles belong to a past era as truly as the sea-fights at Sphacteria and Salamis. But whatever new modes of destruction science may introduce, so long as the race of man survives, no higher exhibition of manhood can be made than the decks of these little frigates witnessed. The true and just description of them, freed from distortion and falsehood, must always be gratifying and stimulating to patriotic pride. But more than this, it teaches clearly and emphatically, and with an ominous warning, the essential conditions, slow of growth but indispensable, on which naval supremacy in all ages depends, and without which it is hopeless. The best ships of their class and time, with the best machinery and all material preparation; the best drilled and disciplined crews, taken from an apprenticeship in a flourishing mercantile marine; and the most experienced, accomplished, and able commanders, are the requisites. With these in perfection a navy inconsiderable in size made itself dreaded and famous. Without these the more numerous a navy the more it invites disaster.

Victor Hugo and His Time. By Alfred Barbou. Translated from the French by Ellen E. Frewer. Harper & Bros. 1882. 8vo, pp. 275.

M. BARBOU is a high-priest of the Hugo cult. He tells the tale of his hero's career with unflagging eulogy. In his youth Hugo was a "sublime infant," in his manhood he was a marvel, in his old age he is a wonder. The bare facts of Hugo's life are given here with sufficient accuracy, but M. Barbou is plainly lacking in the critical faculty. In his eyes, any one who praises, or has praised, Hugo is a distinguished writer of sound views; while any one who has detected any of Hugo's colossal defects is either foolish or knavish. We pass by Gustave Planche, but the author's treatment of Sainte-Beuve (see pp. 111 and 134) is inexcusable, and only atoned for by his unlucky quotation of a remark of Sainte-Beuve's made in 1825, to the effect that Hugo's "egotism was unbounded," and that he "recognized no existence outside of his own."

In its present form, this is an enlarged and copiously illustrated edition of an earlier and simpler biography of Hugo published three or four years ago. An American translation of the original book was issued in Chicago a year ago. The present translation is by an English lady, and is very bad indeed. It is dull and heavy, to begin with, and then it is inaccurate. "Éditeur" is rendered "editor" (p. 68) instead of "publisher"; and "couplets" is transliterated as "couplets" (p. 214) instead of "songs," etc. "Féerie" is turned into "pantomime" (p. 110), and we are told that among Hugo's unpublished dramatic MSS. is "a pantomime, 'La Forêt Mouillée,' in which trees and flowers are made to talk"—surely an odd thing for a pantomime. The illustrations are of very varying value. Some, like the drawing of Cromwell on horseback at the head of his troopers (p. 83), not only depict no scene in M. Barbou's book, but have a very remote connection with any work of Hugo's. Others, like the views of the different houses Hugo has lived in, are more appropriate and useful, although the printing is so cold and harsh that even when the woodcuts are good in themselves they fail to please. Quite the most inte-

resting feature of the book is the number of engravings of Victor Hugo's own drawings, from the chicken in the eggshell, which typifies the "nonsense I wrote before I was born," to the dark and striking profile of a "Castle on the Rhine," signed in bold letters almost as tall as the towers of the castle, and dated 1866. To Americans, perhaps, the most curious sketch is the shadowy scaffold and the hanging figure of John Brown, athwart which fall a few rays of the coming dawn.

Chambers's Etymological Dictionary of the English Language. A new and thoroughly revised edition. Edited by Andrew Findlater, M.A., LL.D. London and Edinburgh: W. & R. Chambers. 1882.

HAVING delivered himself on English science, as being amply sufficient in itself, Dr. Johnson proceeded to pronounce that "the more airy and elegant studies of philology and criticism have little need of any foreign help." And he also satisfied himself that "we know nothing of the scanty jargon of our barbarous ancestors." If, then, between his easily avoidable ignorance of Anglo-Saxon—ignorance going so far as to describe its unknown subject-matter as a "scanty jargon"—and his limited conception and frivolous estimate of philology, his Dictionary, in its etymological department, is seen to be a miserable failure, such a result is only what was to be expected. But his were days when philology was as yet in its stammering infancy. Of Anglo-Saxon, and equally of the numerous other languages from which our own is derived, we are now able to speak with a confidence which was impossible in any past age. Indeed, English etymology has already matured into a science to which, considering its essential character, there adheres, on the whole, but very little uncertainty. To present, in a book that can comfortably be held in the hand, an English dictionary aiming at once to define and to etymologize, is an enterprise which has the merit of novelty. The convenient manual published by the Messrs. Chambers, while not pretending to original research, has laid under contribution many, and indeed most, of the latest and most accredited sources of relevant materials, and has utilized them with sound judgment. Here and there, to be sure, it leaves a blank which is readily supplied, as in the case of *cockroach*, metamorphosed, pretty certainly, from the Portuguese *caroucha*, "chafer." And it might have done better than repeat the absurdity, "*topsi to'er way*, corr. of 'topside the other way,'" quoted by Mr. Wedgwood, and previously quoted by Dr. Richardson, in elucidation of *topsy-turvy*—an expression whose earliest discovered form, *toppe over terve*, or "top overthrown," helps us toward *top set turve*, as presumably the immediate predecessor of the corruption now in vogue. Among the miscellaneous contents of the serviceable appendix to the volume are a list of prefixes and suffixes, explanations of the names of places, words and phrases from Latin, Greek, etc., and many other particulars, in search of which one must ordinarily have recourse to such a quarto as Worcester's or Webster's.

Schiller und Goethe im Urtheile ihrer Zeitgenossen. Zeitungskritiken, Berichte und Notizen Schiller und Goethe und deren Werke betreffend, aus den Jahren 1773-1812, gesammelt und herausgegeben von Julius W. Braun. Erste Abtheilung. Schiller. Erster Band, 1781-1793. Zweiter Band, 1794-1800. Leipzig: Bernhard Schlicke; New York: L. W. Schmidt.

THIS laborious compilation, already briefly described by us on its arrival in this country, is

the first of a series designed to include all contemporary German criticism of the writings of Schiller, Goethe, and Lessing. The first two volumes contain nearly three hundred notices of Schiller, and a third volume will be necessary to complete the references to his works. This is a valuable contribution to the literary history of the time. Of greater worth than the criticisms themselves, is the insight which is given into the condition of German thought and judgment at the close of the last century. The comparisons made with French and English authors serve to illustrate the popular estimate of the different writers of the time. The criticisms, which are faithfully reproduced in the original language and orthography, have been drawn from the multitude of journals and transient publications of the day. The files of long-forgotten newspapers in the great libraries of Germany have been carefully searched. As to the thoroughness with which this has been done, there can be no question. If we compare the list of notices of any single work with the most comprehensive bibliographies, like those of Gödeke and Wenzel, we find much that has not been previously mentioned.

The personal references to the life and character of Schiller are fewer than we should have wished: such as do occur are incidental in notices of his works. The criticisms which Schiller's earliest writings encountered, reveal the general condition of the public mind more clearly than any biographer has yet portrayed it. The present judgment of the "Robbers" would differ little from the estimate of the acutest contemporary criticism. Schiller's great merit was recognized from the first; at the same time, his unbridled license, his inflated style, his rudeness of expression and provincialisms in language, were clearly seen. The moral tendency of such writings, their effect upon public taste and reverence for law, were sharply questioned. In all these reviews the backwardness of German literature is frankly admitted and deplored. Germany is said to be two hundred years behind England in literary culture. The foreign, artificial character of the writings of the best German authors was frankly confessed. We observe, however, that Lessing's criticisms had begun to prevail in literary judgment, and that his dramatic works were seen to possess a natural and truly national character. It was many months after the publication of the "Robbers" before Schiller was generally known as the author. The influence of the play is shown by its immediate and universal popularity. In Swabia and Bavaria it was performed in booths, in the smallest country villages. Its effect upon the young was such that numerous bands of schoolboys organized for a career of robbery, murder, and incendiarism. The *Literatur- und Theater-Zeitung* of Berlin says, curiously, that during the performance of the "Robbers" in Leipzig, robbery in the theatre and in the city was so great that the magistrates privately forbade the repetition of the play.

The parts of this collection which have the greatest present interest are those which relate to Schiller's earliest and latest works. Those which contain the current criticisms of the successive numbers of the *Thalia*, and of Schiller's numerous translations, are of less importance. The general verdict of praise began with Schiller's historical works. His brilliant style and attractive generalizations, so different from the prevailing manner, won hearty admiration, and foreign recognition increased his popularity at home. Of the many reviews, those written by Schlegel and Wieland, as well as some whose authorship can no longer be traced, have a permanent value. On the publication of the "Xenien" in the *Musen Almanach* for 1797

Schiller's name was joined in public notice with that of Goethe. The memorable controversy which resulted from this attack upon the whole army of German scribblers and pedants is vividly recalled in these pages. The work contains not only criticisms of the "Xenien," but reviews of the "Anti-Xenien" as well. Many new facts regarding this contest are revealed. While the presentation of all existing criticisms has been made with the greatest care, occasionally a more extended knowledge on the part of the editor would have increased the value of his work.

The source of each article is given when its contents clearly reveal the authorship, or when investigation has succeeded in determining it. The chronological arrangement is followed throughout the book, all reviews being grouped under the date of their appearance. Hence notices of the same work are often separated by several years. "Fiesco" was reviewed upon its publication in 1783, and was noticed at intervals until 1788. A considerable part of the first volume is taken up with notices of the representations of Schiller's plays upon the stage. Many of these have little value, but are perhaps necessary to afford a complete view of the reception of his works. The insertion of the article upon the execution of the Abbé Frick at Strassburg is scarcely justifiable, as it has nothing to do with Schiller, while that upon the condition of the German stage in 1789, from the *Weimar Journal des Luxus und der Moden*, is an interesting contribution to our knowledge of the dramatic art and actors of the time. The signature to the articles from the *Kosmopolit* should be "H. K—t, in H." An alphabetical index, with the sources of each review, would be a useful addition to the work.

Sache, Leben, und Feinde. Von Dr. E. Dühring. Leipzig. 1882. Pp. 434.

THIS is announced as the author's chief work, and key to all his writings. It is accompanied by a portrait and autograph, is essentially autobiographical, and contains indications that the blind author of the 'Philosophy of Reality' is taking final leave of his public at the early age of forty-eight. After a long course at the University, where he devoted himself to jurisprudence, national economy, philosophy, physics, and mathematics, Dühring began to lecture as *Docent* in Berlin in 1863. His literary productivity was great, and his 'Critical History of the General Principles of Mechanics,' his best work, published anonymously, obtained the first prize, with extremely flattering characterizations, from the University of Göttingen. Meanwhile, lack of funds, failing eyesight, want of recognition, and especially of promotion, and the democratic drift of his morbidly accented personality, gradually embittered his temper, until at last the authorities of the University deemed it advisable to depose him, after he had served for the very long period of fourteen years as *Privat-Dozent*. Disparagement of Helmholtz was made the special occasion of this action. Hundreds of students petitioned, not only in Berlin, but in other universities, that he might be allowed to remain; mass meetings were held, and circulars distributed, and petitions signed; but all in vain. Since then, and especially in this volume, Dühring has dipped his pen in gall. In the autobiography his teachers in the University are denounced by name as "grossly ignorant," "intriguing," jealous, plagiarizing, etc.; his physicians are coarse and undiscriminating, his colleagues in the faculty are plotting against him, friends are false, and enemies bitter and unwearied.

In the autumn of 1879, Dühring found in his

morning papers a notice of his own death, which, he says, he held it undignified to refute; so that during the next few weeks, while quite well and seeing his friends as usual, he read a score or two of necrological notices, most of which were of no very flattering nature. His enemies assert that he gave occasion to the report himself, in order to aid the sale of his books by notoriety, and perhaps to find out his true friends. Congressman Kelley, prevented by false reports of illness and absence from Berlin from visiting him, printed these reports in the *Philadelphia Times* during the summer of the same year, where they were later denied by Dühring with great vigor. The latter, not long after, received \$1,000, bequeathed him by Carey, whose disciple he had long professed himself. Through one of his agents, Bismarck requested Dühring to prepare a treatise in answer to the question, what the Government should do for workingmen. Two years afterward this treatise, which the Government did not formally notice, was published as the production of the agent. Dühring's polemic against the Jews and Social-Democrats has been quite as bitter as against the professors, and, finally, his religious opinions are not unlike those of Feuerbach; so that his enemies are as those of Ishmael, while his tongue is the tongue of Thersites.

He has certainly pointed out, though with vast exaggerations, real defects in the present organization of university life and society. If he should really come to America, as he once told the writer he intended when he had silenced the guns of all his enemies, we can hardly think, handicapped as he is with morbid egotism and the most radical positivism, that he would improve upon his present condition, which he here details with such painful fulness.

Our Ride Through Asia Minor. By Mrs. Scott-Stevenson. With map. London: Chapman & Hall. 8vo. Pp. xix.-400.

ONCE more we have the picture of the desolation wrought by Turkish misrule which all recent travellers in the unhappy lands still subject to the Porte have drawn. The few remaining forests are fast disappearing under the torch of the incendiary. Fruit trees are cut down in mere wantonness by Circassians, the scourge of the land. Roads, even between important cities, are so neglected as to be almost impassable for beasts of burden. The people, stricken with frequently recurring famines, are fast disappearing, deserted villages and towns in ruins being the incidents of every day's journey. Eastern Asia Minor, at least, is becoming an uninhabitable wilderness, chiefly because of the hopeless "weakness and corruption" of the Government. Mrs. Scott-Stevenson's testimony on this point is the more trustworthy since she and her husband are Jingoes of the extreme type, and lose no opportunity of lauding the "poor, down-trodden Turk, abused and robbed by every one," and denouncing "that incarnation of organized hypocrisy and injustice, of brute force and cruelty—the Russian Government and the Russian people." Her husband, an English Army officer holding an official position in Cyprus, puts these two questions to "every man who applies to him for enlistment—first, if he was willing to serve the Queen? . . . then if he was ready to fight the Russians?" It is hardly necessary to add that our author has a most cordial dislike for the Christian population of the country through which she travelled, attributing to them every mean and evil quality, while the missionaries seem to be doing more harm than good. The devotion of lives spent in the endeavor to lift a little of their burden of misery from this

wretched people, and latterly in strenuous efforts to rescue them from starvation, goes for nothing in her eyes since they have fearlessly exposed the barbarities of Turkish rulers. Perhaps it is to emphasize her distrust of them and her contempt for "our fellow-Christians" that she always spells Bible with a little b.

The first part of her ride, taken in the spring of 1880, was over familiar ground, and it is only when the mountain range separating Northern Syria from Asia Minor is crossed, and Tarsus is reached, that we feel any interest in it. From this place her route lay directly through the famous Cilician gates. In the narrowest part "the pass can hardly be more than twenty-four feet wide. The rock had evidently been cut through, for in many places one can easily trace the marks of the mason's chisel and hammer." Kalsariyeh, "the filthiest and most ruined city we had yet entered," and yet rich and prosperous as compared with most of the towns of Armenia, was the northernmost limit of her journey. Much more interesting was Urgub, with its numerous cave houses, formerly the abode of early Christian anchorites. They are very numerous, and in many cases have no visible means of approach, "being cut in galleries along the face of the rock, from two to three hundred feet above the ground." The most attractive part of the journey, however, proved to be the visit to Koniab, the ancient Iconium. Here is the church and college of the Mevlevi dervishes, "the richest and most powerful sect in Turkey." The floor of the dancing chamber

"was of polished oak, and overhead hung a network of silver wires, on which were fastened thousands of glass lamps of every conceivable shape, form, and color. The effect was most beautiful. There were gems of Venetian work among them that collectors would willingly give thousands of pounds for. I have never seen such a variety. Delicate glasses from Venice so thin that one was almost afraid to breathe near them: some with coats-of-arms and designs engraved on them so minutely that it required a magnifying-glass to make them out; some with stems, others with handles, a few with lips or flowers—every color was represented, and the value of the collection must be enormous. I saw Bohemian glass in ruby color and deep blue; opaque Persian glasses and iridescent vases that had been exhumed from some ancient tombs."

Mrs. Scott-Stevenson gives a very animated account of a performance of the whirling dervishes, which was extemporized for her benefit in the kitchen of the monastery. Very graphic, too, are her pictures of the scenes in her night ride over the Taurus, and of the lovely valleys lying between the mountains and the sea. At a little fishing-port her ride ended. Her book gives a fairly trustworthy and readable description of a country but little visited. It is marred, however, at times by a lack of womanly reserve, and by a certain childish petulance which she evidently mistakes for vivacity.

The Young Nimrods Around the World. By Thomas W. Knox. Illustrated. Harper & Bros.

COLONEL KNOX carries his military training into the composition of his books. Though dashing, bold, and brilliant, he rigidly adheres to the well-known maxims of the art of war. He secures a base of supplies, collects ample matériel, and, when he has his troops well drilled, showily clothed, and armed with the most improved weapons, enters upon a campaign whose only limits are those of the globe itself. In his latest enterprise, 'The Young Nimrods,' he plainly shows that time has in no way quenched within him the ardor of the warrior. In command of his gallant little army, he captures the mines of the West, whence he advances upon San Francisco. This city falls an

easy prey to his dashing assault. Here he transforms his troops into horse marines, and takes possession of a ship of war, the *Albatross*. This vessel is one of the extraordinary craft of which our Navy is composed: for to-day, on board of her, he is at the North Pole, to-morrow in Africa, and with equal celerity in South America and Asia, stopping between times to explore the bottom of the sea, or touching *en passant* at New York to describe the life on board the nautical school-ship *St. Mary's*. Sated with victory and success, the Colonel ultimately disbands his army of veterans and seeks retirement wherein to develop plans—possibly for an expedition to the moon.

The confidence of Colonel Knox has been somewhat abused by the topographical engineer attached to the expedition. For example, at page 92, what purports to be a view of the "principal street of Realejo" is in fact the "Calle Real Leon," at least thirty miles from Realejo; at page 250, "shore of the Bay of Fonseca" is a view down the coast near Realejo. There are several cases of this kind. Summary punishment should be inflicted upon this officer. The Colonel might with advantage exercise closer supervision over his adjutant-general. Evidently this functionary writes up the while his chief is snatching a few minutes much-needed rest. He avails himself of this opportunity to pad the Colonel's book with experiences related by other writers. The most alert and astute military man is sometimes betrayed by unworthy members of his staff, and Colonel Knox should look to it that no question should arise impugning his veracity—a point upon which a soldier is peculiarly sensitive. 'The Young Nimrods Around the World,' notwithstanding the shortcomings of these two subordinates, contains a great store of valuable information, given in an agreeable way, and graphically aided by a large number of illustrations, many of which possess uncommon merit.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Aschenbroedel. [No-Name Series.] Boston: Roberts Bros. \$1.
Butcher, S. H. Demosthenes. D. Appleton & Co. 50 c.
Caine, T. H. Sonnets of Three Centuries. Boston: W. B. Clarke & Carruth.
Chambers, W. Story of a Long and Busy Life. R. Worthington. 50 cents.
Cox, S. S. From the Pyramid. Part 2. Orient Sunbeam. Illustrated. G. P. Putnam's Sons. \$2.
Criswell, R. W. The New Shakespeare, and Other Tragedies. American News Co.
Cross, J. Knight-Banneret. Thomas Whittaker. \$1 50.
Dahlgren, Madeleine V. South Mountain Magic. Boston: J. R. Osgood & Co.
Darby, J. Brushland. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott & Co. \$1 25.
De Kay, C. The Vision of Esther. D. Appleton & Co.
Dicey, E. Victor Emmanuel. G. P. Putnam's Sons. \$1.
Drew, B. Hints and Helps to those who Write, Print, or Read. Boston: Lee & Shepard. 50 cents.
Duffield, G. and S. The Burial of the Dead. Funk & Wagnalls.
Ebers, Prof. G. Egypt. Parts 28-31. New York: Cassell & Co. 75 cents each.
Essays from the Critic. Boston: J. R. Osgood & Co.
Ewald, A. C. Stories from the State Papers. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. \$3.
Faiths of the World. St. Giles' Lectures. Chas. Scribner's Sons.
Ficker, F. H. Letters to a Young Merchant. St. Louis: Greco Publishing Co.
Flitters, Tatters, and the Counsellor. Macmillan & Co. \$1.
Fuller, H. W. Impostors and Adventurers. Boston: Soule & Bugbee.
Fuller, E. Forever and a Day: a Novel. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott & Co. \$1 50.
Gekke, C. Hours with the Bible. Vol. IV. From Rehoboth to Hezekiah. James Pott.
Goethe's Werke. Illustriert von ersten deutschen Künstlern. Part 1. B. Westermann & Co.
Gréville, H. Tania's Peril. Philadelphia: T. B. Peterson & Bros. 50 cents.
Harte, Bret. Gabriel Conroy. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. \$2.
Hart, C. The New Testament Scriptures in the Order in which they were Written. The First Portion. E. L. Rouse & Sons. \$1.
Hobbes, T. Marable Family. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott & Co. 50 cents.
Houghton, J. R. The Use of English. D. Appleton & Co. \$1.
Houghton, J. R. and Other Poems. Boston: J. B. Lippincott & Co. \$1.
Household Economy. A Manual for Schools. Iverson, Blakeman & Co.
Jenkins, E. A. A Paladin of Finance: Contemporary Manners. Boston: J. R. Osgood & Co.
Johannot, J. A Geographical Reader. D. Appleton & Co.
Kenney, Minnie E. Gypsy. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 60 cents.
Kennedy, W. S. Henry W. Longfellow. Cambridge: Mosess King. \$1 50.
Lauck, H. J., and Clarke, H. D. Table of Cases Argued and Adjudged in the Supreme Court of the United States. 2 Dallas to 103 U. S. Boston: Little, Brown & Co.
Lewis, Dio. Gypsies; or, Why We Went Gypsying in the Sierras. M. L. Holbrook & Co.
Lippert, J. Christenthum, Volksglaube und Volksbrauch. B. Westermann & Co.
Long, J. Eastern Proverbs and Emblems. Funk & Wagnalls. \$1.

Manton, W. P. Taxidermy Without a Teacher. Boston: Lee & Shepard. 50 cents.
McCarthy, J. The Epoch of Reform. 1830-1850. Chas. Scribner's Sons.
Mombert, J. I. Life, Labors, and Times of the Ven. Dr. Johann Ebel. A. D. F. Randolph. \$1 50.
Monell, G. C. The Creation and the Scripture the Revelation of God. G. P. Putnam's Sons. \$1 50.
Morley, J. Three Volumes of the English Men of Letters: Milton, Pope, Cowper. Harper's Franklin Square Library. 20 cents.
Morris, G. S. Kant's Critique of Pure Reason: a Critical Exposition. Chicago: S. C. Griggs & Co. \$1 25.
Nadal, F. S. Essays at Home and Elsewhere. Macmillan & Co. \$1 50.
Nodal, J. H., and Milner, G. Glossary of the Lancashire Dialect. London: Trübner & Co.
Papers and Proceedings of the National Association for the Protection of the Insane. 1882. G. P. Putnam's Sons.
Pfeiffer, Emily. Under the Aspens: Lyrical and Dramatic. London: Kegan Paul, Trench & Co.
Pneuma-Baptism. Pulaski, Tenn.: Pneuma-Baptist Publishing Co.
Pollock, F. Essays in Jurisprudence and Ethics. Macmillan & Co. \$3.
Randolph, Mrs. Wild Hyacinth: a Novel. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott & Co. 60 cents.
Ribot, T. Diseases of Memory. D. Appleton & Co. \$1 50.
Robt. B. Brought to Bay. Boston: Estes & Lauriat.
Robinson, C. History of the High Court of Chancery and other Institutions of England. Vol. I. Richmond, Va.: J. W. Randolph & English; Boston: Little, Brown & Co.
Rosenthal, L. America and France in the XVIIIth Century. Henry Holt & Co. \$1 75.
Ryder, H. I. D. Catholic Controversy. The Catholic Publication Society Co.
Saturday Lectures, delivered at the U. S. National Museum, under the auspices of the Anthropological and Biological Societies of Washington, in March and April, 1882. Boston: D. Lothrop & Co.
Sedarté, N. M. The Life of a Love in Songs and Sonnets. American News Co.
Shields, C. W. The Order of the Sciences. Chas. Scribner's Sons.
Stanley, A. P. Sermons on Special Occasions. Harper's Franklin Square Library. 20 cents.
Sturges, J. Dick's Wandering. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. \$1 50.
Thalheimer, M. E. The Eclectic History of the United States. Cincinnati: Van Antwerp, Bragg & Co.
The Desmond Hundred. [Round-Robin Series.] Boston: J. R. Osgood & Co.
Theodora; or, Star by Star. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott & Co. 50 cents.
Thomas, Annie. Our Set: a Collection of Stories. Harper's Franklin Square Library. 15 cents.
Three in Norway. By Two of Them. Philadelphia: Porter & Coates. \$1 75.
Twain, M. The Stolen White Elephant, etc. Boston: J. R. Osgood & Co.
Underwood, F. H. Henry Wadsworth Longfellow: A Biographical Sketch. Boston: J. R. Osgood & Co.
Von Holst, H. John C. Calhoun. [American Statesmen.] Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.
Von Schlegel, F. A. Tibetan Tales, derived from Indian Sources. Translated from the Tibetan of the Kah-Geyur. London: Trübner & Co.
Wash, L. S. Study of Various Sources of Sugar. Philadelphia: H. C. Baird & Co.
Yonge, Charlotte M. Unknown to History: a Story of the Captivity of Mary of Scotland. Macmillan & Co. \$1 75.

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NOTICE.—The First National

Bank of Woodstock, located at Woodstock, in the State of Illinois, is closing up its affairs. All noteholders and other creditors of said Association, are therefore hereby notified to present the notes and other claims against the Association for payment.
JOHN J. MURPHY, Cashier.
Dated April 30, 1882.

THE FIRST NATIONAL BANK OF MILWAUKEE,

No. 2,715,

Has been organized (and is in full operation) to take the place of the First National Bank of Milwaukee, No. 64, now in liquidation, as appears by the following

NOTICE:

The First National Bank of Milwaukee, located in Milwaukee, in the State of Wisconsin, is closing up its affairs. All noteholders and other creditors of said Association are therefore hereby notified to present the notes and other claims against the Association for payment.
Dated June 1, 1882. H. H. CAMP, Cashier.

NOTICE.—No. 3.—The First National

Bank of Youngstown, located at Youngstown, in the State of Ohio, is closing up its affairs. All noteholders and other creditors of said Association are therefore hereby notified to present the notes and other claims against the Association for payment.

WM. H. BALDWIN, Cashier.

YOUNGSTOWN, O., May 15, 1882.

No. 2,603.—The above Bank, No. 3, goes into liquidation on account of the expiration of its charter. The First National Bank of Youngstown, Ohio, No. 2,603, with a capital of \$500,000 and surplus of \$150,000, has been organized, and begins business May 16, 1882.

WM. H. BALDWIN, Cashier.

YOUNGSTOWN, O., May 16, 1882.

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